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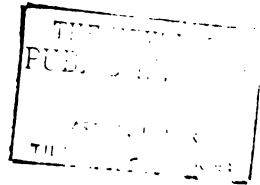
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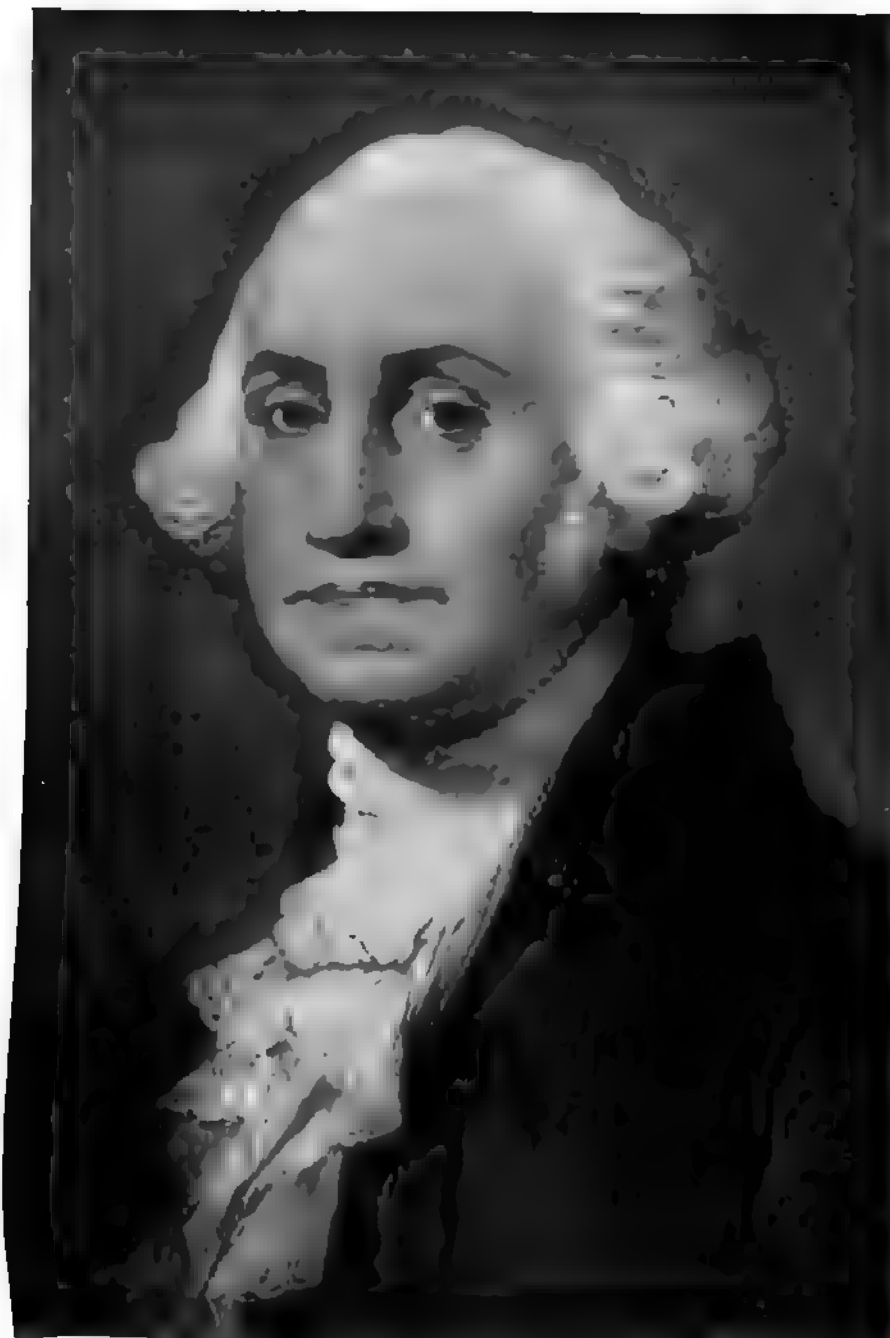
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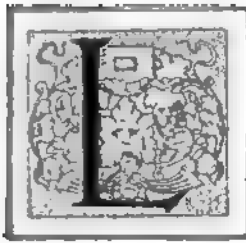


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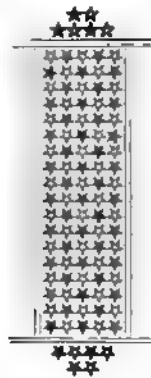




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COMPLETE IN EIGHT VOLUMES

Compiled, Arranged
and Written by.....

ISRAEL SMITH CLARE

Author of "ILLUSTRATED UNIVERSAL HISTORY,"
and "COMPLETE HISTORICAL COMPENDIUM"

REVIEWED, VERIFIED AND ENDORSED BY THE PROFESSORS OF
HISTORY IN FIVE AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES, WITH AN INTRO-
DUCTION ON THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF HISTORICAL STUDY

BY

MOSES COIT TYLER, A.M., L.H.D.

PROFESSOR OF AMERICAN HISTORY IN CORNELL UNIVERSITY

"NOT TO KNOW WHAT HAPPENED BEFORE WE WERE BORN IS
TO REMAIN ALWAYS A CHILD; FOR WHAT WERE THE LIFE
OF MAN DID WE NOT COMBINE PRESENT EVENTS WITH THE
RECOLLECTIONS OF PAST AGES!"—CICERO /

Vol. VII.—American Revolution to the Present.

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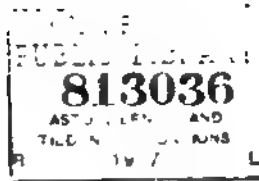


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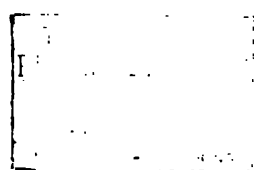
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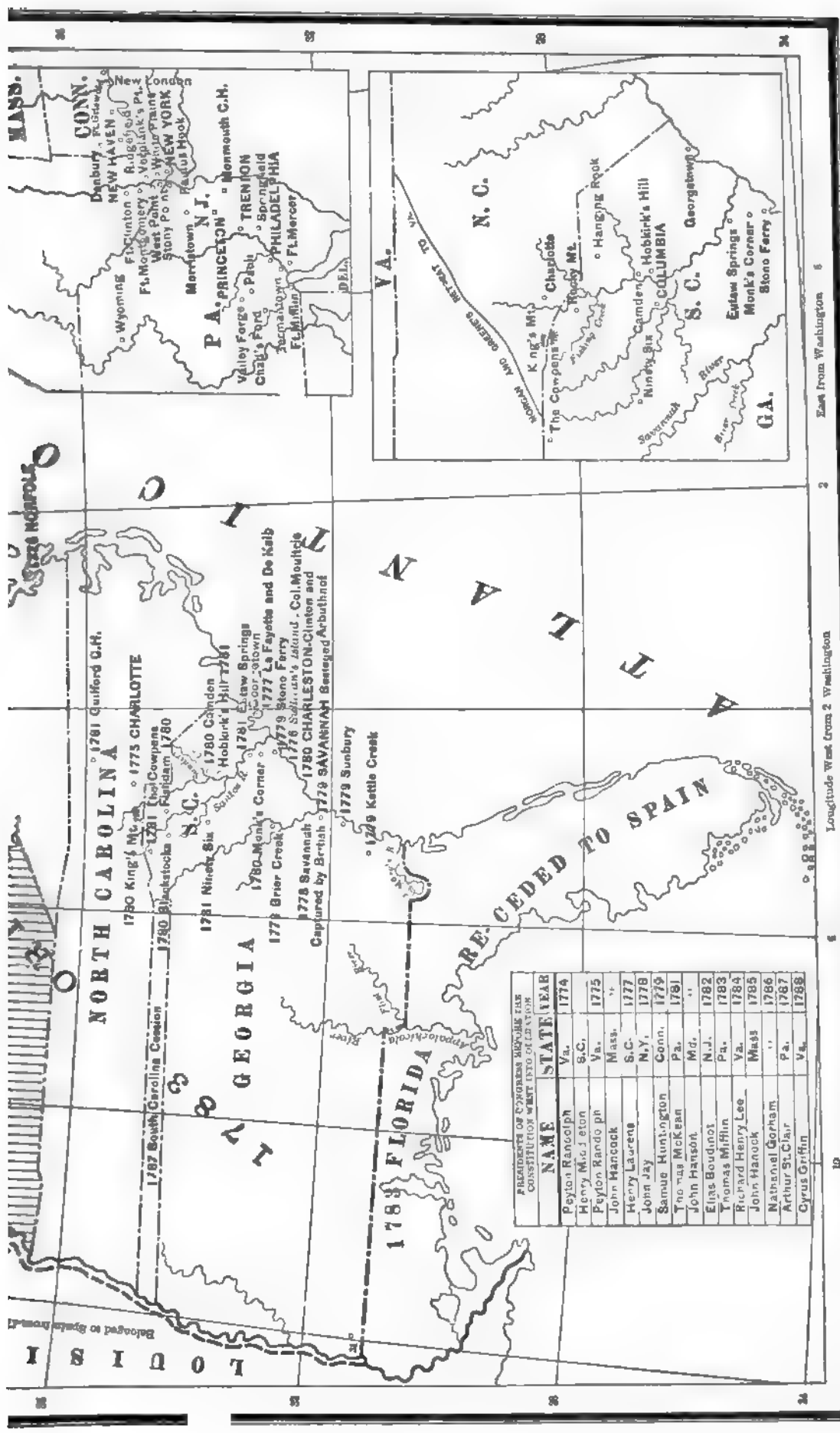
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PRESIDENTS OF CONGRESS WHO WERE IN OFFICE DURING THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION		
NAME	STATE	YEAR
Peyton Randolph	Va.	1774
Henry Middleton	S.C.	1775
Peyton Randolph	Va.	1776
John Hancock	Mass.	1777
Henry Laurens	S.C.	1778
John Jay	N.Y.	1779
Samuel Huntington	Conn.	1780
Thomas Mifflin	Pa.	1781
John Hanson	Md.	1782
Elias Boudinot	N.J.	1783
Thomas Mifflin	Pa.	1784
Richard Henry Lee	Va.	1785
John Hancock	Mass.	1786
Nathaniel Gorham	N.J.	1787
Arthur St. Clair	Pa.	1788
Cyrus Griffin	Va.	1789

Longitude West from 2° Washington 10° East from Washington 18°

CHAPTER IV.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

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WE HAVE already alluded to the accession of King GEORGE III. to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland upon the death of his grandfather George II., October 25, 1760. George III. was the son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, otherwise "Fred" or "Fecky"—the most imbecile of the Hanoverian line, despised and immeasurably loathed by his own parents and sister—who died nine years before his father, King George II. George III. was the first of the House of Brunswick who was born in England; and, as we have already noticed, he gloried in the name of Briton. He had received a passable education, and was a man of pleasing address and of good intentions.

George III. ascended the British throne with the firm determination to rule Great Britain and Ireland in person, and he was more responsible for the policy of his reign than the first two Georges. He was a man of good morals, and of naturally small mind, without the least capacity to use greater minds than his own for the accomplishment of his designs. He hated and was jealous of the great English statesmen of his time, especially William Pitt the Great Commoner. He was determined that such measures only as he had conceived or adopted should be carried out during his reign. He desired to govern as well as to reign, and to be entirely free from the dictation of political parties. His justification is that when he came to the throne neither party had either public spirit or honesty, and it was quite natural for him to feel that he was the only patriot in high place in the

kingdom, and as the only man with disinterested public ends, had a right to make them prevail over the corrupt self-seeking of others. In the pursuit of those ends, which were always well defined and honest, but frequently very unwise, George III. was as obstinate as it was possible for a man to be.

The total collapse of Jacobitism had left the Tory party free to take an active part in British politics again, and that party now came to the king's support with a zeal equal to that which it had manifested in behalf of the Stuarts. The Tories now constituted a "King's Party," which George III. was able to strengthen by the bestowal of the patronage still left at the disposal of the crown. His mother, the Princess of Wales, had repeatedly said to him in his youth: "George, be king." But he did not desire to undo the work of the Revolution of 1688, and called himself a "Whig of the Revolution." He did not wish to govern against law, but simply to govern—to be free from the dictation of parties and Ministers, or, in other words, to be practically his own Prime Minister.

The king's idea was wholly incompatible with the Parliamentary constitution of England as it had received its final form from the Earl of Sunderland; but George III. was resolved to carry out his idea, in which resolution he was aided by the circumstances of the time. The immense patronage of the crown—all promotion in the Church, all advancement in the army, many civil appointments—all of which had been practically usurped by the Ministers of the first two Georges, was resumed and firmly held

by George III., who was aided by the character of the House of Commons.

Sir Robert Walpole had used bribery as a weapon to hold the Whig party together and to keep himself in power for so long a time. George III. made use of that same corrupt means to break up that same Whig party, which was now rent by that spirit of

represented the most prominent statesmen of the time on the public stage under the guise of highwaymen and pickpockets. Said the witty playwright: "It is difficult to determine whether the fine gentlemen imitate the gentlemen of the road, or the gentlemen of the road the fine gentlemen." As the "fine gentlemen" were represented



George the Third King of Great Britain

faction which comes from a long and undisputed lease of power. The Whigs were also weakened by the rising contempt with which the English nation regarded the selfishness and corruption of the leaders and politicians of that party.

More than thirty years before, Gay had

by such jobbers as the Duke of Newcastle, the public contempt was fiercer than ever before; so that men turned in disgust from the intrigues and corruption of party to the young king who assumed the character which Lord Bolingbroke had represented as that of a patriotic monarch.

Had the Whig leaders, Mr. Pitt and the Duke of Newcastle, held together, the one being backed by the commercial class and by public opinion, and the other by the Whig families and by the whole machinery of Parliamentary management, George III. would have struggled vainly and hopelessly. But the dissensions in the Ministry and the forced resignation of Pitt in 1761 gave the king the opportunity he so much desired. Anxious to bring the Seven Years' War to a close, George III. quickly availed himself of the weakness and unpopularity of the Whig Ministry after Pitt's retirement from office to drive the Duke of Newcastle from power by a series of studied mortifications, and to place the Earl of Bute at the head of the Ministry. The other Whig Ministers—even the Duke of Devonshire, who had been made Lord Chamberlain as a reward for his exertions in behalf of the House of Brunswick—were also obliged to resign; and for the first time since the accession of that dynasty a Tory Ministry was in power, as already noticed.

The Earl of Bute was a mere court favorite, with the abilities of a gentleman usher, and was a mere puppet in the king's hands, utterly willing to do the king's will, which was simply to withdraw England from the Seven Years' War at any sacrifice of the national honor. As we have seen, England under the Earl of Bute withdrew her subsidies from Frederick the Great, and concluded the Peace of Paris with France and Spain, in February, 1763, thus reducing the King of Prussia to the necessity of concluding the Peace of Hubertsburg with Austria.

The anxiety of King George III. to end the Seven Years' War sprang solely from his desire to begin the struggle for power at home by which he sought to give his undivided attention to the task of bringing the internal affairs of Great Britain under his own control. Pitt's return to office and the union of the Whigs under his guidance was a constant peril to the king's plans so long as the war lasted. The king could depend on the dissensions of the Whigs, on the support of the Tories, on the influence

of the crown patronage which he had taken into his own hands, and on the corrupt character of the House of Commons.

Though the House of Commons had become the ruling power in England, the government hanging simply on its will, it had long ceased to represent the English people. The changes in the distribution of seats, which had been brought about by the natural shiftings of population since the time of Edward I., had been recognized during the civil war between Charles I. and Parliament; but the reforms of the Long Parliament were canceled at the time of the Stuart Restoration, in 1660. Thenceforth until the reign of George III. no effort was made to check the abuses of the Parliamentary system.

Great towns like Manchester and Birmingham, which had risen with the growth of trade and manufactures in Walpole's time, had no representative in the House of Commons, which was composed principally of the representatives of boroughs which were controlled by the great nobles, who returned as members of the House of Commons whom they pleased, buying and selling seats to the highest bidder. Some of these boroughs, like Old Sarum, had actually ceased to exist for a long time.

This condition of things had its origin in the efforts of the Tudor sovereigns to establish a court party in the House of Commons by a profuse creation of boroughs, most of which were mere villages then at the disposal of the crown, and resulted in the appropriation of these seats by the neighboring land-owners, who bought and sold them as they did their own estates. Even in towns which had a real claim to representation the restriction of municipal privileges ever since the fourteenth century to a small proportion of the inhabitants of such towns, and in many instances the limitation of the elective franchise to members of the governing corporation, rendered their representation simply nominal.

The choice of such seats in the House of Commons depended merely on the purse or influence of politicians. Some were "the

king's boroughs." Others obediently returned candidates of the Ministry in power. Others were "close boroughs" in the hands of jobbers like the Duke of Newcastle, who at one time returned one-third of all the borough members of the House of Commons. The counties and the great commercial towns could alone be said to exercise any real right of suffrage, though the enormous expense of contesting such constituencies practically left their representation in the hands of the great local families. But even in the counties the suffrage was very limited and unequal. In a population of eight millions of English people, only one hundred and sixty thousand had the right of suffrage.

We see how far such a House of Commons represented English public opinion from the fact that even so great a statesman as Pitt in the height of his popularity had great difficulty in finding a seat at all, and he only did find one at the hands of a great borough jobber like Lord Clive. The only way to enter Parliament was by purchasing a seat. Seats were bought and sold in the open market at prices as high as four thousand pounds. A few decades later the younger William Pitt declared with indignation: "This House is not the representative of the people of Great Britain. It is the representative of nominal boroughs, of ruined and exterminated towns, of noble families, of wealthy individuals, of foreign potentates."

The meanest motives naturally actuated a House of Commons returned by such constituencies, cut off from the influence of public opinion by the secrecy of Parliamentary proceedings, and yet intrusted with almost unlimited authority. The Duke of Newcastle had made bribery and borough-jobbing the foundation of the power of the Whig party. King George III. now used the same means as the foundation of the power which he intended to give to the crown. The royal revenue was used to buy seats and to buy votes. The king daily examined the voting-list of the two Houses of Parliament, and distributed

rewards and punishments as members voted in accordance with or against his will. "The king's friends" were the only one's rewarded with promotion in the civil service, preferment in the Church, or rank in the army. Pensions and court places were used to influence debates. Bribery was resorted to on a scale hitherto unknown. Under the Ministry of the Earl of Bute an office was opened at the Treasury for the bribery of members of Parliament, and twenty-five thousand pounds are said to have been paid in a single day.

The result of these corrupt practices was that the very Parliament which had hitherto bowed beneath Pitt's greatness approved the Peace of Paris in 1763 by a majority of five to one in the very face of Pitt's denunciations. Thereupon the Princess Dowager exclaimed: "Now, indeed, my son is king!" The English people had cared little for the abuses or corruptions of the House of Commons so long as the sentiment of that body fairly represented the sentiment of the nation at large, but the Great Commoner's defeat disclosed the existence of a peril of which the nation had never dreamed. The English people found themselves utterly powerless in the face of a legislative body which wielded the supreme authority in their name, but which had wholly ceased to represent the nation. The nation looked on helplessly in the face of all this corruption, conducted on a scale unparalleled in English history—a corruption which enabled the king to convert that branch of Parliament which was the guardian of public rights into a means for governing by his will. Thus public opinion had no means of expressing itself in Parliament, the body recognized as the constitutional expression of public opinion.

But the public opinion thus shut out from the House of Commons found its true representation and expression in the press, and newspapers now began to constitute a "Fourth Estate," which soon became more powerful than all the rest—King, Lords and Commons combined. The political power of the press began with the impulse which

Pitt had given to the national spirit and with the rise of a keener interest in politics. The press had undertaken to champion the cause of the greatly wronged people of England, and had become the recognized court of political appeal from the corrupt House of Commons, thus venturing to criticise the acts of the king, the Ministry and Parliament with a vigor which incensed the king as well as the Ministers, the Lords and the Commons.

The Peace of Paris was odious to the English people. John Wilkes, the editor of the *North Briton* and the member of the House of Commons for Aylesbury, denounced the treaty of peace with great vehemence and attacked the Earl of Bute for negotiating it, thus venturing for the first time to attack a Minister by name; and the public journals became the mouthpieces of a popular indignation which expressed itself in public disturbances and riots, and which soon arose to so high a degree that the Earl of Bute was obliged to resign in the very face of his unbroken majority.

King George III., who was as much frightened as his fallen Minister, and who saw that the time had not yet come for him to rule by his own partisans alone, then appealed to Pitt to form a new Ministry; but Pitt, although he had been betrayed by the Duke of Newcastle and his followers, saw clearly that without the support of the entire Whig party a Minister would be a mere instrument of the crown, as the Earl of Bute had been. The Great Commoner therefore refused to take the reins of office unless a purely Whig Ministry were appointed—a condition which the king refused to accept, as it would have defeated his purpose of dividing the Whig party.

Instead of forming a Ministry from the better faction of the Whig party, headed by the Marquis of Rockingham and the Cavendishes, who were supported by the commercial classes and who sustained Pitt, the king called upon George Grenville and the Duke of Bedford, the leaders of the smaller Whig faction which retained the narrow and selfish temper of a mere oli-

garchy, in whom every other feeling was overmastered by greed of power. Accordingly the Ministry of the Earl of Bute was succeeded by that of George Grenville, in the very year of the Peace of Paris, A. D. 1763.

Grenville's Ministry was marked by an attempt to muzzle the press and by an effort to assert the right of Parliament to tax the North American colonies—blows aimed at popular freedom in both England and America. Grenville was as unpopular as the Earl of Bute had been, and the press was soon filled with the most virulent libels from the several factions that divided the kingdom. Even His Majesty himself was assailed in these bitter political articles in the columns of the journals which opposed the Ministry.

At length, in 1764, the Ministry was aroused by an article in No. 45 of the *North Briton*, John Wilkes's journal, in which it was stated the king's speech to Parliament contained a deliberate falsehood. A general warrant was issued by the Secretary of State for the arrest of the editor, printers and publishers of the *North Briton*. Mr. Wilkes was arrested and sent to the Tower as a state prisoner, and several innocent persons were also taken into custody.

The Ministry soon found that in their eagerness to punish a delinquent they had raised a great constitutional question. Wilkes was a worthless profligate; and, but for the mistake of the Ministry in prosecuting him, he would have died in obscurity. The government's legalized persecution of him made him the representative of a great principle of English constitutional freedom—the liberty of the press; while it also enlisted popular sympathy on his side. By a strange irony of fortune he became the chief instrument in bringing about three of the greatest advances which the English Constitution has made since the Revolution of 1688.

This first struggle ended in the establishment of the freedom of the press. At a later period he aroused the English people to a conviction of the necessity of Parlia-

mentary reform by his defense of the rights of constituencies against the despotism of the House of Commons, and he led in the struggle which put an end to the secrecy of Parliamentary proceedings.

The printers of the *North Briton*, arrested under the warrant, brought action against the messengers by whom they had been arrested, and recovered heavy damages for illegal arrest. Mr. Wilkes was brought by a writ of habeas corpus before the Court of Common Pleas, but was liberated, the judges having unanimously decided that his commitment was illegal, as privilege of Parliament extended to the case of writing a libel and as the warrant did not name the person to be arrested, and was not issued by a magistrate, but by an officer of state. Wilkes recovered heavy damages against the government for illegal arrest and imprisonment.

The House of Commons gave a very different decision from that of the Court of Common Pleas by voting that No. 45 of the *North Briton* was "a false, scandalous and seditious libel," and that the author of such a production was not protected by privilege of Parliament. The House of Lords also voted that a certain pamphlet found among Wilkes's papers was blasphemous, and advised a prosecution therefor. The case of the article in No. 45 of the *North Briton* was still before the civil courts, Wilkes having been prosecuted therefor on the charge of libel. Soon afterward he fought a duel with Mr. Martin, whom he had also libeled, and was severely wounded.

As soon as Wilkes had recovered from his wound he retired to France, A. D. 1764. During his absence from England he was expelled from the House of Commons by a vote of that body, and was outlawed by the Court of King's Bench for not appearing to stand his trial on the charge of libel.

The assumption of arbitrary judicial power by both Houses of Parliament, and the system of terror which Prime Minister Grenville put in force against the press by issuing two hundred injunctions against various journals, roused a storm of indigna-

tion throughout England. The English people espoused the cause of Wilkes, as they regarded the proceedings against him as a violation of popular liberty. Every street resounded with the cry of "Wilkes and Liberty," and Grenville was obliged to succumb before this outburst of public sentiment. The result of the government's action against Mr. Wilkes was the declaration of the illegality of general warrants by a resolution of both Houses of Parliament, and no such warrant has ever since been issued.

The Grenville ministry, which had attempted to throttle the press and thus aroused public sentiment against it in England, with equal recklessness excited the indignation of the English colonists in North America by carrying the famous Stamp Act through Parliament, as we shall see more fully hereafter. So unpopular had the Grenville administration become that it was forced to resign in 1765; and after another unsuccessful effort on the king's part to induce Pitt to form a new ministry, the Marquis of Rockingham and the whig faction which he headed, undertook the reins of government in July, 1765. The new ministry secured the repeal of the Stamp Act in March, 1766.

In the summer of 1766 Pitt succeeded the Marquis of Rockingham as Prime Minister, and became a member of the House of Lords with the title of Earl of Chatham. Pitt sought to do justice to Ireland and the American colonies, to inaugurate Parliamentary reform in England, and to secure the transfer of the government of British India from the East India Company to the British crown; but he was obliged to retire from public affairs by ill-health occasioned by nervous prostration; and, as most of his friends followed him in his retirement, his efforts to reunite the Whig party thus came to naught.

After a series of changes, a new Ministry was formed of the worst faction of the Whigs and of the new Tory party known as the "king's friends." Thus George III. had finally reached his aim in the forma-

tion of a "King's Ministry," whose strength lay in the disorganization of the Whig party and the king's steady support. This Ministry lasted fourteen years, from 1768 to 1782, and was under the leadership of the Duke of Grafton during the first two years, and during the remaining twelve years under the guidance of Lord North, who was thus Prime Minister during the whole period of the War of American Independence.

For the time Pitt was removed from public life and discredited. His championship of the rights of the American colonists had caused the king to style him "a trumpet of sedition." The Whig party was rent into the two factions under the respective leadership of the Marquis of Rockingham and the Duke of Bedford. The faction under the Duke of Bedford and George Grenville had places in the "King's Ministry," and their Parliamentary support lay in the "king's friends" and the Tory party, who were the submissive instruments of the royal will. The king's influence was preëminent when the Duke of Grafton was Prime Minister, and supreme during the Premiership of Lord North, who was the king's mere mouthpiece.

Says a careful observer concerning the king: "Not only did he direct the Minister in all important matters of foreign and domestic policy, but he instructed him as to the management of debates in Parliament, suggested what motions should be made or opposed, and how measures should be carried. He reserved for himself all the patronage, he arranged the whole cast of the administration, settled the relative place and pretensions of Ministers of State, law officers and members of the household, nominated and promoted the English and Scotch judges, appointed and translated bishops and deans, and dispensed other preferments in the Church. He disposed of military governments, regiments and commissions, and himself ordered the marching of troops. He gave and refused titles, honors and pensions."

All this immense patronage was steadily used for the creation and maintenance of

the king's party in both Houses of Parliament, and the king's influence was perceived in the dependence to which his compliant Ministry was reduced; so that George III. was really sole Minister during the fifteen years which followed the organization of this Ministry—this darkest hour of modern English history, when England lost her most flourishing colonies through the arbitrary conduct of this obstinate king and his subservient Ministers.

As Grenville's Ministry had done, the "King's Ministry," at the instigation of the king himself, renewed the struggle with public opinion in England and with the English colonists in North America. As we have seen, the corrupt House of Commons had failed in its efforts to gag the press and to transform itself into a supreme court of justice. It now began the most glaring outrage on the rights of an English constituency.

As the legal term of this corrupt Parliament had almost expired, it was dissolved in 1768, and writs were issued for the election of a new House of Commons. Wilkes returned from France and offered himself as a candidate for Parliament from Middlesex, and was elected by an overwhelming majority. His election was virtually a public condemnation of the House of Commons. The Ministry shrank from a renewal of the struggle with the agitator; but King George III., who was eager for the contest, wrote to Lord North: "I think it highly expedient to apprise you that the expulsion of Mr. Wilkes appears to be very essential, and must be effected." The Ministry and the House of Commons bowed to the royal will.

After his election Wilkes surrendered himself to the Court of King's Bench; and that tribunal reversed its sentence of outlawry against him, but sentenced him to pay a fine of a thousand pounds and to be imprisoned for twenty-two months. As the English people considered him a martyr in the cause of popular liberty, a subscription was opened to pay his fine, to support him during his imprisonment, and to compound his debts, which amounted to more than

twenty thousand pounds. Dangerous riots broke out in London and throughout the kingdom, but the government defied public sentiment.

When the new Parliament convened, the populace of London thought that Wilkes would be released from prison to take his seat in the House of Commons; and a vast multitude assembled in St. George's Fields, round the King's Bench prison, for the purpose of conducting him to the House of Commons. The Surrey justices took the alarm and read the Riot Act; but, as the crowd refused to disperse, the military were called out and ordered to fire. One man was killed outright, and many were wounded, several fatally. This outrage created intense indignation, especially as a Scotch regiment had been employed in the shooting. The various coroner's inquests returned verdicts of wilful murder against the soldiery, and on the trials which occurred afterward several of the soldiers were convicted of murder.

The government defied the popular feeling by granting pardons to the soldiers who had been found guilty of murder; and the Secretary of State, Lord Weymouth, sent a letter to the Surrey justices thanking them for their spirited conduct. Mr. Wilkes published Lord Weymouth's document in his journal with an indignant commentary, terming the shooting affray "a horrid massacre," and adding a virulent invective against the entire conduct of the government. Wilkes was expelled from the House of Commons for this publication on the charge of libel.

The freeholders of Middlesex unanimously reelected Mr. Wilkes at the beginning of 1769. This defiance of the electors of Middlesex led the House of Commons a step farther; and it resolved, "That Mr. Wilkes, having been in this session of Parliament expelled the House, was and is incapable of being elected a member to serve in the present Parliament." The House issued a writ for another election. In answer to this insolent claim to limit the free choice of a constituency, Mid-

dlesex elected Wilkes for the third time; and the House of Commons vented its rage in a new and more outrageous usurpation by again expelling him. He was elected for the fourth time by an immense majority of the voters of Middlesex, the vote standing eleven hundred and forty-three for Wilkes and two hundred and sixty-nine for his opponent, Colonel Luttrell; but the House of Commons voted that Colonel Luttrell ought to have been elected, and that he was the sitting member for Middlesex.

By its own arbitrary discretion the House of Commons had limited the free election of the constituency of Middlesex, and had also transferred the rights of that constituency to itself by seating Luttrell as a member in defiance of the deliberate choice of Wilkes by the freeholders of Middlesex. The English people at once rose indignantly against this violation of constitutional law, as they justly considered it a fatal blow at the liberties of the subject. Petitions and remonstrances of the boldest nature poured into Parliament from all parts of England; and the press was filled with virulent attacks on all constituted authorities, some even going so far as to deny the legality of the existing Parliament and the obligation of the people to obey the laws which it enacted. Wilkes was elected an Alderman of one of the wards of London; and the Lord Mayor, the Aldermen and the Livery petitioned the king to dissolve Parliament. A remonstrance from London and Westminster asserted that "there is a time when it is clearly demonstrable that men cease to be representatives. That time is now arrived. The House of Commons do not represent the people."

An anonymous journalist named "Junius," attacked the government in his celebrated *Letters*, which were characterized by their rancorous and unscrupulous tone, and by the superior brilliancy of their style, by their clearness and terseness of statement, and by the terrible vigor of their invective, thus giving a new power to the literature of the press. George III. obstinately defied

public sentiment. "Junius" was prosecuted, and the petitions and remonstrances of London were haughtily rejected; but the failure of the prosecution of "Junius" established the right of the press to criticise the conduct of Parliament and Ministers and even of the sovereign himself.

Early in 1770 William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, so far recovered his health that he reappeared in the House of Lords, where he at once denounced the usurpations of the Commons and introduced a bill declaring those usurpations illegal. But his genius soon made him perceive that such outrages really owed their existence to the fact that the House of Commons no longer represented the people of England. He therefore introduced a plan for the reform of that House by an increase of its county members. He could go no farther, as he was almost alone in the proposals which he made. Even the Whig faction under the Marquis of Rockingham were opposed to Parliamentary reform, and shrank with haughty disdain from the popular agitation in which public opinion was forced to express itself—an agitation which the Earl of Chatham deliberately encouraged, although he censured its extravagance.

These quarrels between Wilkes and the House of Commons were the beginning of the influence of public meetings on English politics. The gatherings of the Middlesex electors in support of Wilkes were the preludes to the great meetings of the Yorkshire freeholders which gave the question of Parliamentary reform its importance; and the power of political agitation first made itself felt in England in the movement for Parliamentary reform and in the establishment of committees of correspondence throughout the kingdom for the purpose of promoting that reform. Political societies and clubs became prominent in the creation and organization of public opinion; and the spread of political discussion, along with the influence now beginning to be exercised by the appearance of many men in support of any political movement, made it evident that Parliament would soon be obliged to reckon

with the sentiments of the English people at large.

But the force of public opinion was brought to bear on Parliament itself by an agent far more effective than popular agitation. The secrecy of Parliamentary proceedings, which was the source of so much of the corruption of the House of Commons, was more difficult to preserve as the English people awoke to a greater interest in their public affairs. The debates in Parliament had been hitherto printed surreptitiously, as their publication was deemed a breach of privilege. The public interest in the debates on the Middlesex election induced the printers to act more boldly.

In 1771 a formal complaint was made in the House of Commons; and that body issued a proclamation forbidding the publication of its debates, and summoned six printers who set this proclamation at defiance to appear at the bar of the House. One printer who refused to appear was arrested by the messenger of the House of Commons; but the printer sent for a constable, who took both before the Lord Mayor of London, Mr. Crosby. The Lord Mayor and Aldermen Wilkes and Oliver set aside the proclamation of the House of Commons as without legal force, discharged the printer, and required the messenger to furnish bail or go to prison on a charge of illegal arrest. The House of Commons received the news of these proceedings of the London magistrates with the most violent indignation, sent Lord Mayor Crosby and Alderman Oliver to imprisonment in the Tower, and summoned Wilkes to appear at the bar of the House. The cheers of the crowds which followed the Lord Mayor to the Tower showed that public opinion was again on the side of the press; and, as Wilkes refused to appear at the bar of the House of Commons unless he were permitted to take his seat for Middlesex, the House compromised its dignity by ordering him to attend on the 8th of April, and then adjourning to the 9th.

Since that event no attempt has been made to prevent the publication of the Parlia-

mentary debates, which now constitute the most important and the most interesting feature in the periodical press. Few changes have been so quietly brought about. The responsibility of members of Parliament to their constituents was made constant and effective by the publication of their proceedings, and the English nation itself was called in to aid in the deliberations of its representatives. The English people at large were roused to a new and wider interest in public affairs, and the discussion of every subject of national importance in Parliament and in the press gave them a new political education. All phases of public opinion, as represented by the public journals, became a force in practical statesmanship, influenced the course of Parliamentary debates, and controlled the actions of the Ministry in a closer and more constant manner than even Parliament itself had been able to do.

The press obtained an influence from the importance of its new position which it had never had before, and the first great English newspapers took their rise during this period. Journalism took a new tone of responsibility and intelligence with the rise of such great London papers as the *Morning Chronicle*, the *Morning Post*, the *Morning Herald* and the *Times*. The *London Times*—the greatest newspaper of the world—was founded January 1, 1788. Journalists of high moral temper and high literary excellence thereafter influenced British public opinion through their columns.

COLONIAL TAXATION.

Democratic ideas had a slow and steady, but solid, growth in England's North American colonies from the time of the establishment of those colonies. Those who left their homes in Europe to settle in the New World were animated with a desire for the enjoyment of pure civil, political and religious freedom. The republican spirit of the English American colonists was manifested in popular resistance to obnoxious acts of the British Parliament, and to the tyranny of the royal governors sent from Eng-

land to America to administer the government of the colonies. The claim of the English Parliament to legislate for the colonies was boldly denied by the colonists, who finally rebelled against the mother country, and, after a war of seven years, achieved their political independence and established a democratic republic under the name of *The United States of America*.

The long wars against France oppressed England with an enormous debt and exhausted the British treasury; and the Imperial Government resolved to procure money from the North American colonies by either direct or indirect taxation, on the plea that the French and Indian War had been undertaken by England for the protection of her colonies, and that therefore it was not more than right that the colonists should bear some part of the expense of that struggle. The colonists denied the right of the Imperial Parliament to tax them, as they were not allowed any representation in that body, and maintained that "Taxation without representation is tyranny."

The British Government first attempted to exercise the asserted right to tax the colonies by issuing search-warrants to persons appointed by the king to enforce the revenue laws. These warrants, called *Writs of Assistance*, authorized the government officials in the colonies to search for suspected goods which had been imported into the colonies, and on which the duty had not been paid. The colonists firmly resisted this encroachment on their liberties. The legality of the writs was boldly denied by the Americans; and in February, 1761, the matter was brought before the General Court in Boston, where James Otis, then Advocate-General of the colonies, and an able lawyer, appeared on the side of the American people, and denied the right of the Imperial Parliament to tax the colonies without their consent.

In February, 1765, George Grenville, who was then at the head of the British Ministry, introduced into Parliament a bill requiring the Anglo-American colonists to purchase for specified sums, and to place on all

written documents, stamps furnished by the British Imperial Government. This was a measure which no former British Ministry had the courage to attempt. The passage of this bill, known as the *Stamp Act*, in 1765, produced universal indignation in America. Most of the colonial legislatures passed resolutions denouncing the measure, and James Otis in Massachusetts and Patrick Henry in Virginia thundered forth eloquent denunciations of the act.

part of some bold resolutions which Henry had introduced were adopted; and the colonists were aroused to a firm stand to defend their rights, and the determination was made to resist the execution of the odious Stamp Act. Associations called *Sons of Liberty* were formed; and the stamps were seized on their arrival in the colonies, and secreted or burned. The officers, called "Stamp Distributors," who had been appointed to sell the stamps, were so much despised and in-



PATRICK HENRY.

While speaking in the Virginia Assembly, at Richmond, of the fate of tyrants of former periods, Patrick Henry exclaimed: "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I. his Cromwell, and George III."—Here the speaker was interrupted by cries of "Treason! treason!" from some of the members; and Mr. Henry, after pausing a moment, said: "May profit by their example. If that be treason, make the most of it." A

sulted that they soon relinquished their business; and on the day appointed for the Stamp Act to go into effect, there was not an officer who had the courage to attempt the enforcement of the law.

A convention of delegates, known as the *Stamp Act Congress*, assembled in New York City on the 7th of October, 1765. This convention, or congress, which was in session fourteen days, drew up a *Declara-*

tion of Rights which denied the right of Parliament to tax the colonies, and adopted a petition to the king and memorials to Par-

English America ; all business was suspended ; the courts were closed ; the bells were muffled and tolled ; and the vessels in



PATRICK HENRY ADDRESSING THE VIRGINIA ASSEMBLY.

liament. On the 1st of November, 1765, the appointed day for the Stamp Act to go into effect, universal silence prevailed in

the harbors displayed their flags at half-mast. Suddenly the Anglo-Americans manifested their indignation in an open disregard

of the law. The houses of British officials in American cities were assailed by mobs, and loyalists were burned in effigy. The colonists agreed to import no more goods from the mother country until the obnoxious law should be repealed. As we have seen, the Grenville Ministry had been succeeded by another Whig Ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham in July, 1765.

The determination of American merchants not to import British goods into America alarmed the British merchants so much that they united with the colonists in petitioning

Wilkes and Colonel Barre, whose two names were given to the town of Wilkes-Barre, in Pennsylvania.

Pitt said in a speech in the House of Commons: "In my opinion this kingdom has no right to lay a tax on the colonies * * * America is obstinate! America is almost in open rebellion! Sir, I rejoice that America has resisted. Three millions of people so dead to all feelings of liberty as voluntarily to submit to be slaves would have been fit instruments to make slaves of the rest."



SEAT OF PATRICK HENRY.

[From a picture in Howe's Historical Collections of Virginia.]

Parliament to repeal the Stamp Act. The new British Ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham found that it must either compel the colonists to submission, or have the odious act repealed. After long and angry debates in Parliament the act was repealed on the 6th of March, 1766. The repeal was hailed with manifestations of joy in both England and America. The colonists testified their gratitude to William Pitt and Edmund Burke, the great friends and champions of the Americans in Parliament. Other friends of the Americans were John

In the House of Lords, Lord Camden said in the course of a speech in favor of the repeal of the Stamp Act: "Taxation and representation are inseparably united. God has joined them. No British Parliament can separate them. This position I repeat, and will maintain to my last hour. It is founded on the law of nature. It is itself an eternal law of nature."

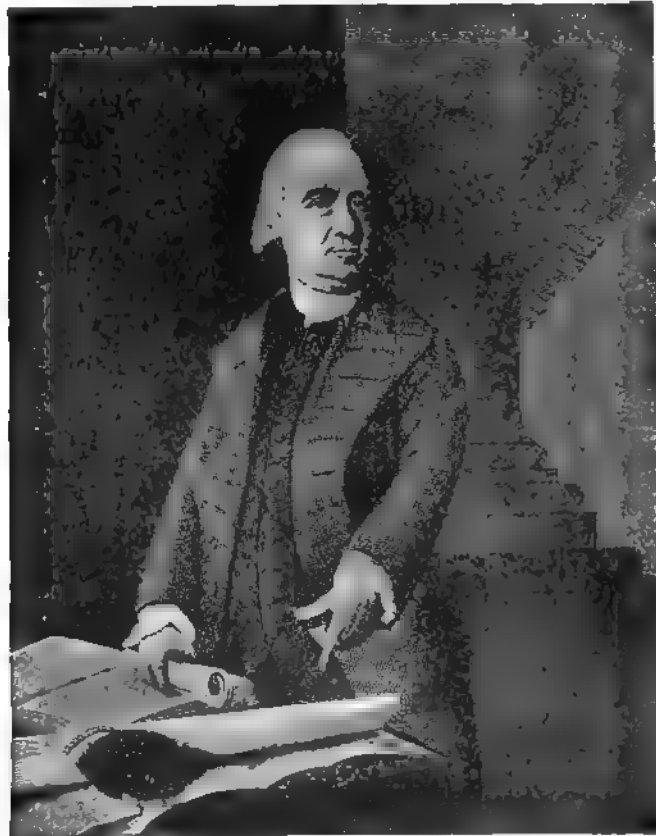
The fires of discord were soon kindled anew. For the purpose of securing the repeal of the Stamp Act, Pitt had accompanied the repeal with a *Declaratory Act*, which as-

serted that Parliament had "the right to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever."

Under the sanction of the Declaratory Act, the British Parliament passed new acts as obnoxious in principle to the Anglo-Americans as the Stamp Act had been. To intimidate the colonists, British troops were sent to America in June, 1766; and Parliament passed a *Mutiny Act*, requiring the colonists to furnish food and

in that colony with food or quarters. These tyrannical measures highly exasperated the Americans.

New non-importation leagues were now formed in the colonies; and pamphlets and newspapers instigated the American people to oppose the oppressive measures of the British Ministry and Parliament. In February, 1768, the Massachusetts Assembly issued a *Circular Letter* to the assemblies



SAMUEL ADAMS.

shelter to these royal troops. In June, 1767, a tax was imposed on several articles imported into the colonies. In July of the same year an act was passed creating a board of trade and commissioners of customs in the colonies, independent of the colonial assemblies; and another act was passed which suspended the legislative power of the Assembly of New York, because that body had refused to supply the royal troops

of the other Anglo-American colonies, soliciting their coöperation in endeavors to procure a redress of grievances; and before the close of the year almost every colonial assembly had asserted that the Imperial Parliament had no right to legislate for the colonies. The British Ministry, highly exasperated at this boldness, ordered the Massachusetts Assembly, in the name of the king, to rescind the *Circular Letter*; but

the Assembly, by an almost unanimous vote, refused to rescind. James Otis and Samuel Adams were the principal leaders of the Assembly on this occasion.

The new commissioners of customs, who arrived in Boston, in May, 1768, were detested by the colonists. In June, 1768, the commissioners seized a sloop belonging to John Hancock, because that individual had refused to pay the duty on the cargo on the arrival of the vessel. When the seizure had become known, the commissioners were assailed by a mob and compelled to flee for refuge to Castle William (now Fort Independence), in Boston harbor.

At the call of Bernard, the royal governor of Massachusetts, seven hundred royal troops, under General Thomas Gage, were brought to Boston, in order to frighten the people into submission. On a quiet Sunday in September, 1768, these troops entered the city, with charged muskets and fixed bayonets, with drums beating and flags flying, and with all the insolence of a conquering army taking possession of a captured city. As the indignant Bostonians refused to furnish the troops who had been sent among them as instruments of slavery with provisions or quarters, Governor Bernard caused some of them to be quartered in the State House, some in Faneuil Hall, and others in tents on the city common. Early in 1769 the British Parliament revived an old law of the time of Henry VIII., which required the Governor of Massachusetts to send the leaders of the late disturbances in Boston to England for trial on a charge of treason.

The exasperated people of Boston could with difficulty be restrained from committing acts of violence. The soldiers and citizens quarreled almost daily; and on the 2d of March, 1770, several citizens were beaten by some of the troops. This created great excitement among the inhabitants; and on the evening of the 5th (March, 1770) several hundred collected in the streets for the avowed purpose of driving the troops from the city. A fight ensued, in which three of the citizens were killed and two badly

wounded. The mob retired before the troops. The city bells rang an alarm, and very soon several thousand of the citizens assembled under arms. Governor Hutchinson made his appearance, and appeased the excited people by promising that justice should be rendered in the morning. At the demand of the Bostonians, the soldiers were removed from the city; and Captain Preston and eight of the troops, who had fired on the mob, were tried for murder. The captain and six of the troops were acquitted. The other two were found guilty of manslaughter. Those Bostonians who were killed in the riot were considered martyrs to liberty; and "The Boston Massacre," as the affray was called, was for many years kept alive by anniversary orations in Boston and its vicinity.

The disturbances in America, and the complaints of the British merchants, whose interests were injured by the operation of the American non-importation leagues, induced the British Ministry to propose, on the very day of the Boston Massacre, the repeal of all the obnoxious tax laws, except the duty on tea. The tax on tea was retained for the double purpose of aiding the English East-India Company and maintaining the right of the Imperial Parliament to tax the colonies. Lord North, who was then Prime-Minister of Great Britain, not comprehending the fact that the colonists were contending for a great principle, and that they considered the imposition, by the British Parliament, of a tax on a single article as a stroke at their liberties just as much as if a hundred articles were taxed, believed that they would not complain of a small duty on one article of luxury. The Anglo-Americans therefore continued their non-importation leagues against the purchase and use of tea.

In 1771 the exactions of British government officials produced rebellion in the interior of North Carolina. The insurgents, whose object was to redress the grievances of the people, called themselves *Regulators*. In a bloody skirmish on the Alamance Creek, on the 16th of May, 1771,

the Regulators were conquered by Governor Tryon, and six of their number were hanged for treason; but the spirit of opposition among the people was not crushed, and was frequently manifested in popular outbreaks. On the 9th of June, 1772, a party of sixty-four armed men from Providence, Rhode Island, burned the British schooner *Gaspé*, which had run aground while cruising in Narraganset bay for the purpose of enforcing the revenue laws.

dignation so much the more, and they refused to receive a cargo of tea. Governor Hutchinson of Massachusetts, in defiance of the popular will, ordered the landing of several cargoes which arrived at Boston in December, 1773. The people of Boston held meetings in Faneuil Hall, and resolved that no tea should be landed; and on the night of the 16th of December, 1773, a party of about sixty men, disguised as Indians, went on board of the tea-ships and broke

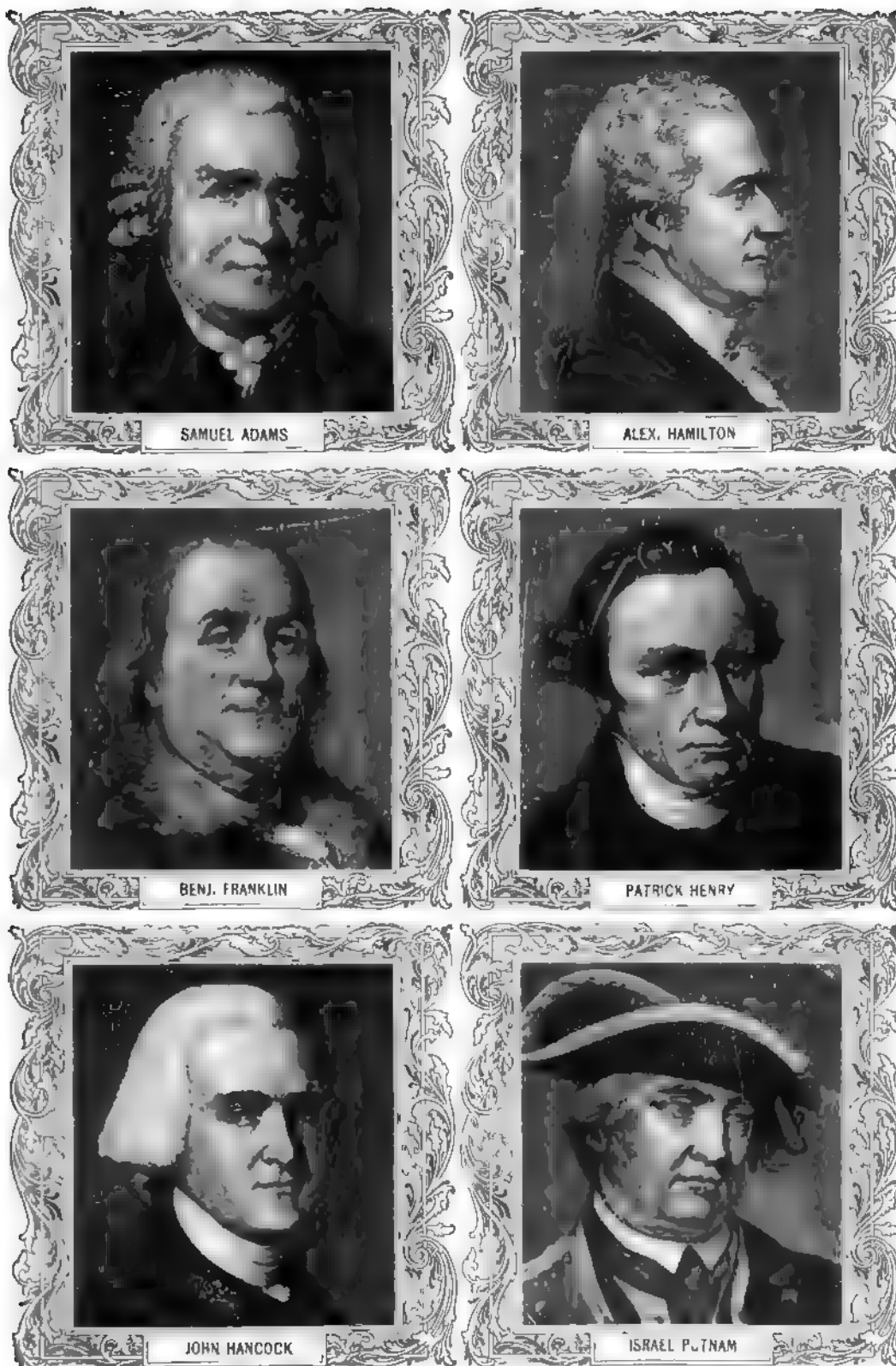


THE BOSTON MASSACRE, MARCH 5, 1770.

As the Americans refused to use or purchase tea so long as a duty remained on that article, Lord North, who was still unwilling to relinquish the right of Parliament to tax the colonies, agreed to permit the East-India Company to send over their tea on terms that would make it cheaper in America than in England. This attempt to bribe the colonists into submission by means of cheap tea only aroused their in-

open three hundred and forty-two chests of tea and emptied their contents into the waters of the harbor.

So highly exasperated at the destruction of tea in Boston harbor was the British Ministry that it resolved upon retaliatory measures. On the 7th of March, 1774, Parliament passed an act called the *Boston Port Bill*, which ordered the port of Boston to be closed against all commerce and removed



THE SPIRIT OF 1776.

the seat of the colonial government of Massachusetts to Salem. Another act was passed on the 28th (March, 1774), which virtually subverted the colonial charter of Massachusetts. This was followed by another act on the 21st of April, providing for the trial in England of any person charged with murder in the colonies in support of the imperial government. A fourth act authorized the quartering of royal troops in the colonies; and a fifth conceded great privileges to the Roman Catholics in the newly-acquired province of Canada. These tyrannical measures aroused the most intense in-

the British Government were called *Tories*; and the great body of the American people, who opposed the despotic measures of the government, were called *Whigs*.

Soon after the closing of the port of Boston, the Assembly of Massachusetts met at Salem, and issued an invitation to the other Anglo-American colonies to elect delegates, who should meet in a Continental Congress in Philadelphia in September following. This invitation was accepted; and the First Continental Congress convened in Carpenter's Hall, in Philadelphia, on the 5th of September, 1774. All the colonies, with



FANEUIL HALL, BOSTON.

dignation in America, which was increased when General Thomas Gage, who had just been appointed Governor of Massachusetts, went to Boston with troops to enforce the obnoxious acts of Parliament. Under his direction the port of Boston was closed on the 1st of June, 1774.

Committees of Correspondence had been formed in some of the colonies in 1773. These committees were diligent in their work of uniting the colonies by an interchange of views and intelligence. The Anglo-American colonists were now divided into two parties. The few who sustained

the exception of Georgia, were represented. The Congress chose for its president Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, and for its secretary, Charles Thomson, of Pennsylvania. The Congress approved the conduct of Massachusetts in her opposition to the oppressive measures of the British Ministry and Parliament; agreed upon a *Declaration of Rights*; recommended non-intercourse with Great Britain so long as the obnoxious laws of Parliament remained unrepealed; and voted a petition to the king and an address to the people of Great Britain and Canada; after which they adjourned, to meet on the

ensuing 10th of May (1775), unless the British Government should in the meantime redress the grievances complained of by the colonists.

During the summer of 1774 the people of English America, and particularly those of Massachusetts, were earnestly preparing for the inevitable struggle with the mother country. They engaged daily in military exercises, chose leaders, and held themselves ready to fly to arms at a moment's warning. On this account they were called *Minute-men*. Martial exercises continued throughout the ensuing autumn and winter, and public speakers everywhere encouraged the colonists to resist the tyrannical measures of the British Parliament. General Gage, Governor of Massachusetts, and British commander-in-chief in America, becoming alarmed, fortified Boston Neck, and seized great quantities of ammunition found in the New England colonies. A false rumor, which spread over New England in September (1774), that British warships were cannonading Boston, produced such excitement that within two days thirty thousand armed men were on their way to that city. In October the Assembly of Massachusetts convened at Cambridge, and resolved itself into a Provincial Congress, with John Hancock as president, and made provisions for raising an army.

As the British Parliament, early in 1775, rejected a conciliatory measure proposed by Mr. Pitt, and passed an act prohibiting the colonists from fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, thus striking a severe blow at the prosperity of New England, the colonists saw that they must either defend their rights and liberties by force of arms, or slavishly submit to the oppressive acts of Parliament. They chose the former alternative; and, relying upon the justice of their cause and the aid of an All-Ruling Providence, they resolved to bid defiance to the military and naval power of Great Britain.

THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

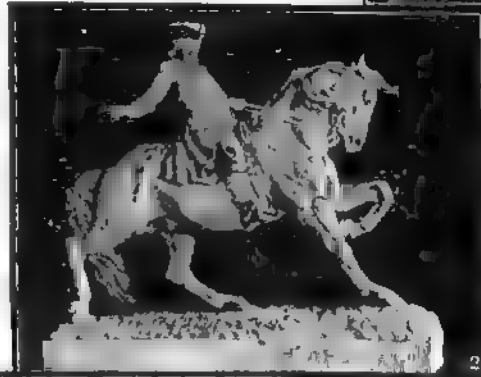
On the 1st of April, 1775, there were three thousand British troops in Boston; and on

the night of the 18th General Gage sent eight hundred troops, under Lieutenant-Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn, to destroy the stores of ammunition which the colonists had gathered at Concord, about sixteen miles north-west from Boston. Although this movement was made secretly, the people were aroused by the vigilant Dr. Joseph Warren and Paul Revere, who had obtained a knowledge of the designs of Gage; and when, on the morning of the 19th (April, 1775), Pitcairn, approached the village of Lexington, six miles from Concord, he found eighty armed Minute-men ready to oppose him. Pitcairn riding forward, exclaimed: "Disperse you rebels! lay down your arms and disperse!" And when they refused obedience, his troops, according to his orders, fired upon the patriots, killing eight of them. This was the first bloodshed in the great *American Revolution*. After the short skirmish at Lexington, the British immediately proceeded to Concord, killed several more Minute-men in a skirmish there, and destroyed the stores of ammunition. The king's troops then hastily retreated to Boston, fired upon along the whole route of their retreat by the people from behind trees, stone-fences and buildings; and by the time they reached Boston, in the afternoon of the same day (April 19, 1775), they had lost in killed and wounded two hundred and seventy-three men, while the American loss was only one hundred and three men. The intelligence of the bloodshed at Lexington and Concord produced the greatest excitement throughout the Anglo-American colonies, and everywhere aroused the colonists to action. Before the close of April a patriot army of twenty thousand men was surrounding the British troops in Boston, and before the close of summer the power of every royal governor from Massachusetts to Georgia was at an end.

On the 10th of May, 1775, some New Hampshire militia, under Colonel Ethan Allen, seized Fort Ticonderoga. Entering the fort, Allen demanded its surrender.

The commandant asked: "By what authority?" Allen replied: "By the authority of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress." Two days later (May 12, 1775) Colonel Benedict Arnold, with Connecticut militia, took possession of Crown Point. With the capture of these two fortresses, the Americans obtained forty pieces of artillery, and secured the command of Lake Champlain, thus opening the way for an invasion of Canada. A Committee of Safety, appointed by the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, held its sittings in Cambridge, regulated military operations, and appointed General Artemas Ward commander-in-chief of the provincial forces, and Richard Gridley chief engineer. On the 25th of May, 1775, large reinforcements for General Gage arrived from England, under the command of Generals William Howe, Henry Clinton and John Burgoyne. The British army in Boston, thus increased to twelve thousand men, prepared to drive the rebellious provincials from the vicinity of the city. Gage issued a proclamation declaring all Americans in arms to be rebels and traitors, and offering an amnesty to all who would submit to British authority, except Samuel Adams and John Hancock, whom he intended to seize and send to England to be hanged.

On the night of the 16th of June, 1775, General Artemas Ward sent one thousand provincial troops,



under Colonel William Prescott, to take possession of and fortify Bunker's Hill, in Charlestown. By mistake, in the darkness of the night, Prescott and his troops

ascended Breed's Hill, on which they erected a strong redoubt before morning. When the astonished British commanders saw this redoubt on the morning of the 17th (June, 1775) they opened upon it from Copp's Hill, in Boston, and from the ships-of-war in the harbor, a fierce cannonade which continued until noon with little effect. The Americans had received a reinforcement of five hundred troops during the forenoon, thus increasing their force in



ROBERT NEWMAN HANGING LANTERN IN THE TOWER.
EQUESTRIAN STATUE OF REVERE.
REVERE CROSSING THE RIVER CHARLES.

the redoubt to fifteen hundred men. About noon three thousand British troops, under Generals Howe and Pigot, crossed the Charles river from Boston and marched up the hill to attack the redoubt, firing cannon as they ascended. When the British column had approached within ten rods of the redoubt Colonel Prescott gave the order to fire,

which his troops executed with such terrible effect that the advancing enemy were driven back with heavy loss. The time; and the battle raged fiercely, until the Americans, having exhausted all their ammunition, were driven from the redoubt and



BUNKER HILL MONUMENT.

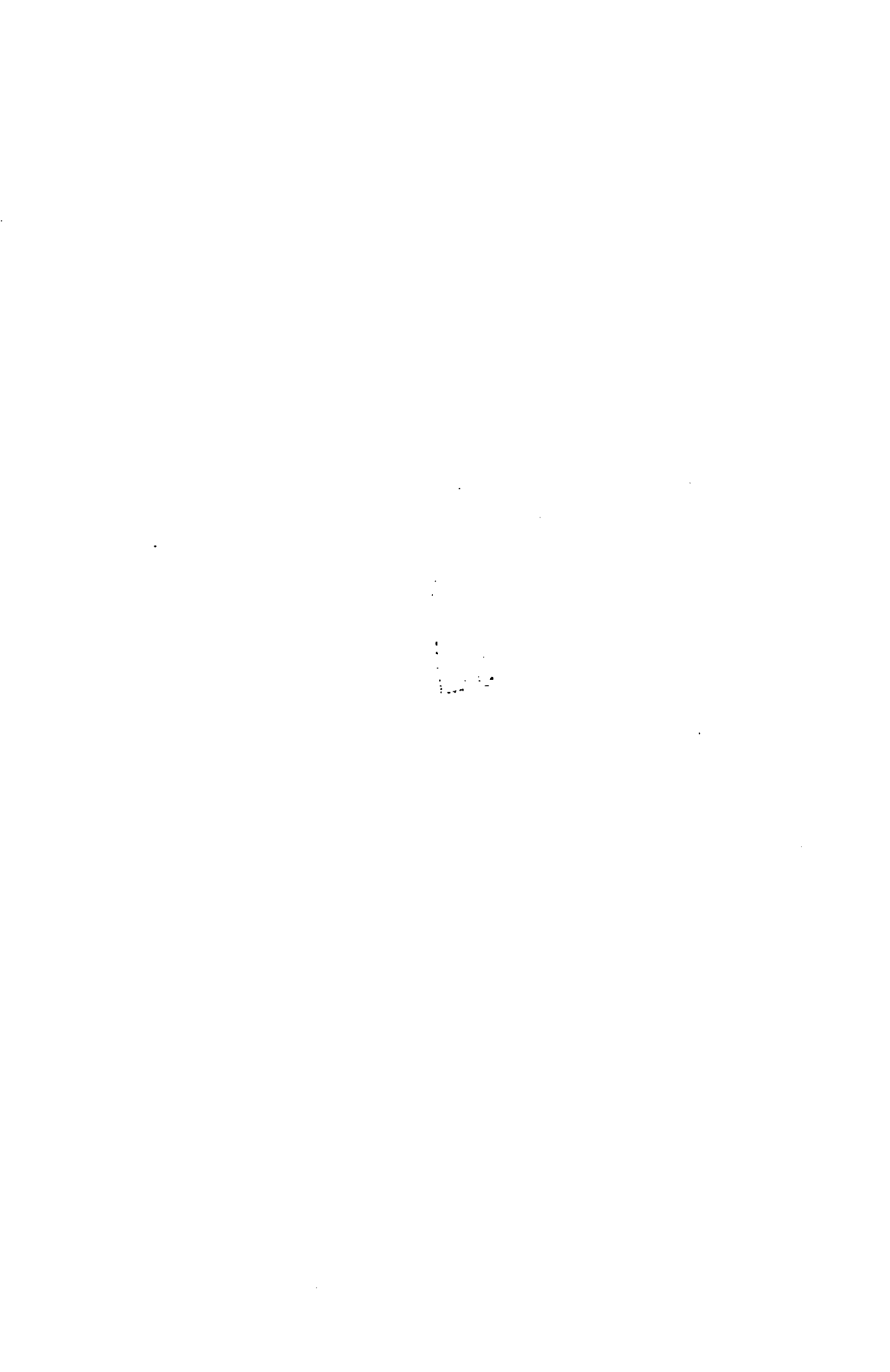
British again advanced and assailed the redoubt, but met with a second disastrous repulse. They ascended the hill a third time, and the battle raged fiercely, until the Americans, having exhausted all their ammunition, were driven from the redoubt and

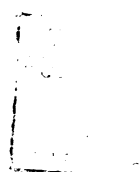
compelled to retreat across Charlestown Neck. As the Americans retreated, one of their number, the heroic General Joseph



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BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.







DEATH OF GENERAL MONTGOMERY, QUEBEC.

Warren, was shot dead. The British took possession of and fortified Bunker's Hill, while the Americans intrenched themselves on Prospect Hill. The Americans lost four hundred and fifty men in killed, wounded and missing; while the British lost one thousand and fifty-four. During the battle Charlestown was set on fire by order of General Gage, and five hundred houses were destroyed. Although fought on Breed's Hill, this memorable engagement, which was the first real battle of the War of the American revolution, is known as the *Battle of Bunker Hill*.

In the meantime, while the events just related were occurring in New England, the Revolution was progressing rapidly in the Southern colonies. In the Virginia Assembly, at Richmond, Patrick Henry concluded a masterly speech with the words: "Give me Liberty, or give me Death!" When Lord Dunmore, the royal governor of Virginia, seized a quantity of powder belonging to the colony, the patriot Henry demanded and obtained full indemnity; and Dunmore was forced to seek refuge on a British man-of-war in Norfolk harbor. In May, 1775, a convention of delegates, sitting at Charlotte, Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, declared their constituents absolved from all allegiance to the British crown. This is known as the *Mecklenburg Declaration*.

In the meantime, while English America was in one blaze of excitement over the events at Lexington and Concord, the Second Continental Congress assembled in Philadelphia on the 10th of May, 1775. Although expressing its desire for a reconciliation with the mother country, the Congress voted to raise an army of twenty thousand men; and on the 15th of June, 1775, that body elected George Washington, a delegate from Virginia, commander-in-chief of all the forces raised, or to be raised, for the defense of American liberty. On the 3d of July, 1775, Washington took command of the American army at Cambridge. With this force, numbering fourteen thousand men, Washington began a

siege of Boston, which was still occupied by the British army under General William Howe.

During the summer of 1775 some New England and New York troops, under General Philip Schuyler, went down Lake Champlain. Owing to illness, Schuyler was obliged to relinquish the command of his troops to General Richard Montgomery, who, on the 3d of November, captured St. Johns, on the Sorel or Richelieu river, after a siege of more than a month. While the siege of St. John was progressing, Colonel Ethan Allen, who, with eighty men, had attacked Montreal on the 25th of September, was made a prisoner and carried to England in irons. Colonel Bedell, with some American troops, captured Chambly; and, on the 13th of November, Montgomery took possession of Montreal.

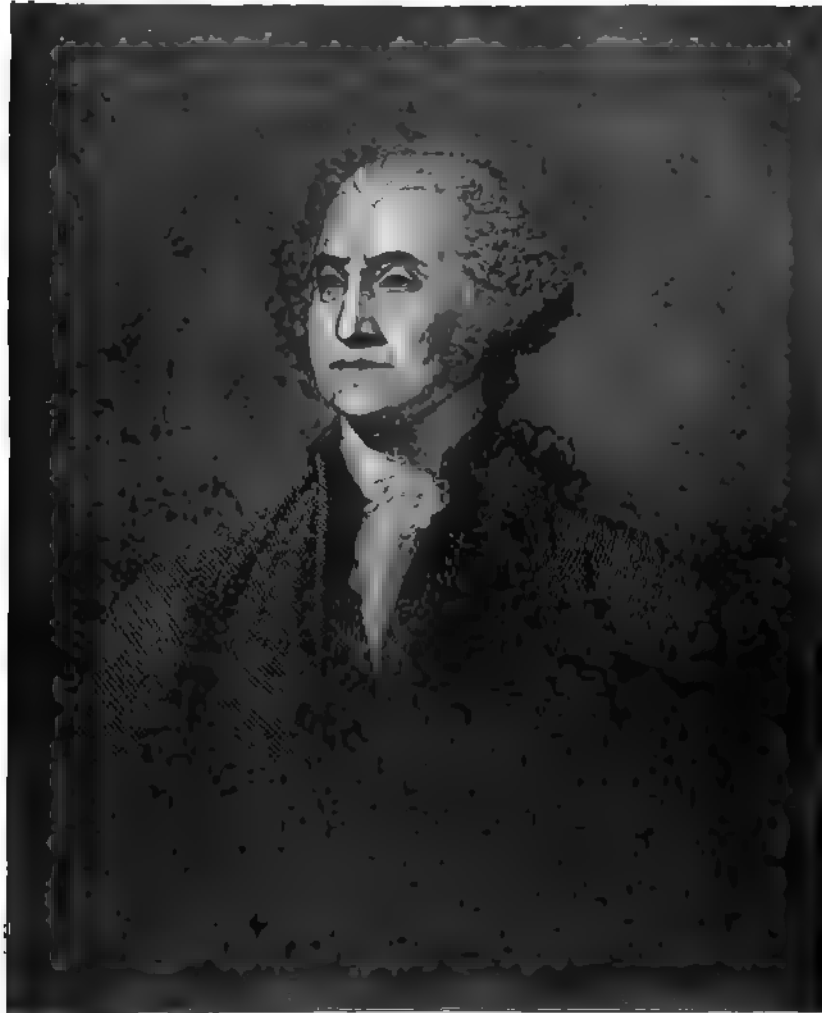
At Point au Trembles, twenty miles above Montreal, Montgomery was joined by seven hundred and fifty Americans under Colonel Benedict Arnold, who had left Cambridge, Massachusetts, in September, 1775, and marched along the Kennebec and Chaudiere rivers to the St. Lawrence, suffering almost incredible hardships on the way. On the 5th of December the American forces, under Montgomery and Arnold, laid siege to Quebec. For three weeks the Americans had besieged Quebec, when, on the 31st of December (1775), they attempted to take the city by assault. Montgomery was killed and Arnold wounded, and their troops were repulsed with great loss. In the month of June, 1776, the American invaders were entirely driven out of Canada.

While the Americans were suffering misfortunes in Canada, the Virginians were prosecuting the Revolution with zeal and success. Governor Dunmore, at the head of a force of Tories and negroes, ravaged South-eastern Virginia, but was repulsed in an attack upon Hampton on the 24th of October (1775); and, after proclaiming open war, he was defeated by the Virginia militia in a severe battle near the Dismal Swamp, twelve miles from Norfolk. For the pur-

pose of revenging himself upon the rebellious Virginians, Dunmore burned the city of Norfolk on the first of January, 1776; but, after committing other atrocities on the sea-board, he was finally driven away and went to England.

Early in 1776 the British government

As the British Government early in 1776 made extensive arrangements to crush the rebellion against its authority in North America, the Continental Congress urged General Washington to attack the British army under General Howe in Boston. On the evening of the 2d of March, 1776,



GENERAL WASHINGTON.

hired seventeen thousand Hessians from Germany to subdue the revolted colonists. The employment of these hirelings was severely denounced by Lord Camden, the Earl of Shelburne and the Duke of Richmond in the House of Lords, and by Lord John Cavendish in the House of Commons.

Washington, having fourteen thousand men under his command, opened a heavy cannonade upon the British works around that city; and on the night of the 4th a portion of Washington's army, under General John Thomas, intrenched itself upon Dorchester Heights, now South Boston. The

siege continued until the 17th, when Howe and his troops were allowed to evacuate the city. The British army sailed to Halifax, in Nova Scotia, with the families of fifteen hundred Tories; and Washington's army immediately took possession of the city, to the great joy of its delivered inhabitants.

Boston, Washington proceeded to the Hudson, and fortified the passes of the Highlands.

In the meantime Sir Henry Clinton, with British land troops, in conjunction with a fleet from England under Sir Peter Parker, was on his way to attack Charleston, South



INDEPENDENCE HALL—THE OLD STATE HOUSE IN PHILADELPHIA.

During the winter General Charles Lee had been sent by Washington to take command of troops for the defense of New York against any attack which might be made upon that city by Sir Henry Clinton, who had left Boston in January with a part of Howe's army. After the evacuation of

4—80.—U. H.

Carolina. The South Carolinians made ample preparations to defend their chief city against any attack of the enemy. On Sullivan's Island, near the city, a fort was built of palmetto logs, and garrisoned by five hundred Americans under the gallant Colonel William Moultrie; and before the

British were prepared to attack the city General Charles Lee arrived in Charleston, and took the chief command of the American troops there. The English fleet under Parker, and the land troops under Clinton, opened a furious assault upon Fort Moultrie on the 28th of June, 1776. After a stubborn conflict of ten hours, the British army was repulsed with heavy loss, and sailed away for New York, leaving the Southern colonies free from the turmoil of war for more than two years. General Clinton joined Howe's army at New York on the 1st of August.

A few days after the repulse of the British at Charleston, the Continental Congress, sitting in the old State House in Philadelphia, immortalized itself by a glorious act. The Congress had been for some time discussing the question of proclaiming the independence of the Anglo-American colonies. All hopes for a reconciliation with the mother country had passed away. The British Parliament had not repealed its obnoxious acts. The British Ministry had sent large armies to America to force the colonists to submit, and hired seventeen thousand Hessians from Germany to assist in crushing liberty in America. These proceedings widened irreparably the breach between England and her North American colonies; and a pamphlet called *Common Sense*, written by Thomas Paine, who had

come from England several years before, had prepared the Anglo-Americans for independence.

On the 7th of June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, offered the following resolution of independence in the Continental Congress: "Resolved, That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought

to be, totally dissolved." This resolution was warmly debated in the Congress, many of the delegates opposing it as premature, and others as treasonable; and a committee of five, consisting of Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, John Adams of Massachusetts, Dr. Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, Roger Sherman of Connecticut and Robert R. Livingston of New York, was appointed to draft a declaration of independ-

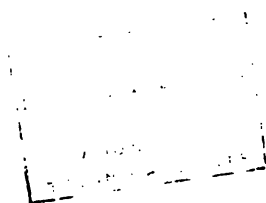


THOMAS PAINE.

ence in accordance with Lee's resolution. The declaration was written by Jefferson, the chairman of the committee, and was reported on the 2d of July, on which day Lee's resolution was passed; and on the 4th (July, 1776), the Congress adopted the great *Declaration of Independence*, which proclaimed the Anglo-American colonies free and independent States under the name of *The United States of America*, and which also defined the rights of all mankind. This



THOMAS JEFFERSON.



action of the Congress was approved everywhere throughout English America; and the 4th of July, 1776, has ever since been remembered by the American people as their country's birth-day, and the annual recurrence of the day has been always celebrated with every demonstration of public enthusiasm.

A few days before the Declaration of Inde-

sand men. Admiral and General Howe were jointly commissioned to treat for peace, but only on the condition that the Americans should lay down their arms and submit to the authority of the British government; and, as the Americans refused to agree to such a peace, the British officers prepared to crush the rebellious colonists at one blow.



JOHN HANCOCK.

pendence, General Howe appeared on Staten Island with a powerful British force. There, on the 12th of July, he was joined by his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, with a large fleet from England; and on the 1st of August by Sir Henry Clinton and his land forces from Charleston. In August thirty thousand British troops stood opposed to the American army of seventeen thou-

On the 22d of August, 1776, a British force of ten thousand men landed on Long Island, near Brooklyn; and on the 27th (August, 1776) a bloody battle was fought between the British commanded by Generals Grant, Cornwallis, Clinton and De Heister, and several thousand Americans under the chief command of General Israel Putnam. The Americans were disastrously

defeated, with the loss of sixteen hundred men in killed, wounded and prisoners. Among the Americans who were made prisoners were General Sullivan and

30th (August, 1776) the whole American army recrossed from Brooklyn to New York.

On the 15th of September (1776) Wash-



SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

Lord Stirling. Several days after the battle General Putnam was joined by Washington, with the main body of the American army, from New York City; but on the

ington's army evacuated New York City, and retreated up the Hudson, for the purpose of seizing and fortifying Harlem Heights, on the upper end of Manhattan

Island. The British pursued, and on the same day a severe skirmish occurred on Harlem Plains, in which the Americans were victorious, but at the cost of the lives of Colonel Knowlton of Connecticut and Major Leitch of Virginia.

In order to ascertain the exact condition of the British army, Washington engaged Captain Nathan Hale, a young Connecticut officer of Knowlton's regiment, to visit the British camps on Long Island as a spy. After getting the information he wanted, and, as he was about to return, he was detected, taken to General Howe's head-

quarters. His last words were: "I regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

On the 28th of October (1776) Howe defeated Washington in the battle of Red Bank; after which Washington retreated further northward; and on the 4th of November he crossed the Hudson river into New Jersey, for the purpose of saving Philadelphia, where the Congress was sitting. On the 16th of November (1776) Fort Mifflin was captured by the Hessian general Knyphausen, after a furious assault, in which he lost one thousand men. The



WASHINGTON ON THE HUDSON.

quarters at New York, and hanged as a spy the next morning by the brutal provost-marshal Cunningham. He was refused a Bible or a clergyman during his last hours, or to send letters to his friends. A humane British officer had given him pen, ink and paper to write a letter; but the brutal provost-marshal took them from him and tore his letter to pieces, saying afterward that his reason for so doing was that he "did not want the rebels to know that they had a man who could die with such firmness." Hale was a young man of liberal education and accomplished manners, and had taught

two thousand American troops under Colonel Magaw, who had garrisoned the fort, became prisoners to the victorious Hessians.

Two days after the fall of Fort Mifflin (November 18, 1776) Lord Cornwallis, with six thousand British troops, crossed the Hudson into New Jersey in pursuit of Washington's shattered army. For three weeks Washington, with only three thousand men under his command, retreated before the pursuing hosts of Cornwallis until he reached the Delaware, on the 8th of December, and crossed that stream into Pennsylvania. Howe ordered Cornwallis to wait

until the river was frozen over and then cross on the ice. In the meantime General Charles Lee was surprised and captured by the British near Morristown, New Jersey.

Taking advantage of the delay of the enemy, and having increased his army to five thousand men, Washington secretly recrossed the Delaware into New Jersey on Christmas night; and on the following morning (December 26, 1776) he attacked and captured one thousand Hessians at Trenton. The Hessian commander, Colonel Rahl, fell mortally wounded in the streets of the city. This sudden victory raised the spirits of the

ton. Among the Americans who were killed was the heroic General Hugh Mercer. After the battle of Princeton, Washington marched to the hills of North-eastern New Jersey and established his camp at Morristown. He sent out detachments, which, by a system of guerrilla warfare, so annoyed the British that they soon left New Jersey.

On the approach of a British detachment from New York, General MacDougall burned the American stores in his charge at Peekskill, on the Hudson, March 23, 1777, and fled to the hills. About the middle of April (1777) Lord Cornwallis went up the



WASHINGTON'S RETREAT THROUGH NEW JERSEY.

desponding patriots and alarmed General Howe, who had supposed that the rebellion was at an end. Howe immediately sent Cornwallis with a considerable force to capture Washington's army.

On the evening of the 2d of January, 1777, Lord Cornwallis appeared at Trenton with a strong British force and encamped close to Washington's army, which he expected to capture on the following morning. Washington, however, escaped secretly during the night; and the next morning (January 3, 1777) he defeated a British detachment under Colonel Mawhood at Prince-

Raritan river and attacked the Americans under General Benjamin Lincoln at Boundbrook, New Jersey, with little effect.

Toward the close of April, 1777, Governor Tryon, at the head of two thousand British and Tories, invaded Connecticut and devastated the southern part of that State. The Connecticut militia, under Generals Wooster, Silliman and Arnold, attacked Tryon's force at Ridgefield on the 27th of April (1777). Wooster was killed in the engagement, but the enemy were compelled to retreat hastily to New York.

At two o'clock in the morning of April 23,

1777, one hundred and seventy Americans under Colonel Meigs, after crossing Long Island Sound from Connecticut, surprised a British provision post at Sag Harbor, on

On the night of July 10, 1777, Colonel William Barton with some men in whale-boats crossed Narraganset Bay to Newport, Rhode Island, stole quietly to the quarters

WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.



the eastern end of Long Island, burned a dozen vessels, the store-houses and their contents, and returned without losing a man.

of the British General Prescott, took him from his bed, and carried him away a prisoner. General Prescott was afterward

exchanged for the American General Charles Lee.

During the year 1777 the young Marquis de Lafayette, a wealthy French nobleman, nineteen years of age; the Baron de Kalb, also a Frenchman; and two brave Poles, Count Pulaski and Thaddeus Kosciuszko, arrived in America to serve the cause of freedom. In the following year the Baron de Steuben, a skillful Prussian military officer, arrived, and brought efficiency to the American army.



KOSCIUSZKO'S MONUMENT AT WEST POINT.

The main armies of the British and the Americans commenced active operations in June. In the latter part of that month Howe's army left New Jersey, and was conveyed by the British fleet down the Atlantic to the mouth of the Chesapeake bay, and up that bay to its head, where it disembarked; after which it marched eastward, in the direction of Philadelphia. Washington, in the meantime, had crossed the Delaware river, and advanced westward to meet Howe.

At Chad's Ford, on the banks of the Brandywine creek, in Chester county, Pennsylvania, a bloody battle was fought on the 11th of September, 1777, between the armies of Washington and Howe. The Hessians under General Knyphausen attacked the American left wing under Washington in

person at Chad's Ford, while Howe and Cornwallis assailed the American right wing under General John Sullivan near the Birmingham meeting-house. Washington was defeated, with the loss of twelve hundred men in killed, wounded and prisoners; while Howe lost only eight hundred men. The next day the shattered American army retreated to Philadelphia. In this battle the young Marquis de Lafayette was severely wounded. Count Pulaski also fought in this battle. On the night of the 20th (September, 1777) General Anthony Wayne, with fifteen hundred American troops, was attacked at Paoli by a British force under General Grey. Wayne lost three hundred men. This is known as the *Massacre of Paoli*.

After the battle of Brandywine, Washington made another stand for the defense of Philadelphia against Howe's advancing forces, crossed the Schuylkill, and had a skirmish with Howe's army twenty miles west of Philadelphia; but a heavy rain prevented a general battle, and Washington retreated to Reading. The Congress left the city, and went first to Lancaster and then to York, where it assembled on the 30th of September (1777), and where it remained in session until the following summer. General Howe took military possession of Philadelphia on the 26th of September, 1777, and the British army established its winter-quarters in the Quaker City.

On the 4th of October (1777) a severe battle was fought at Germantown, near Philadelphia, between the armies of Washington and Howe. The Americans were defeated with the loss of twelve hundred men, while the British lost only half that number. The campaign between the main armies closed with the battle of Germantown, and Washington went into winter-quarters at Whitemarsh; but he afterwards removed to Valley Forge, on the Schuylkill river, twenty miles north-west from Philadelphia, which city was occupied by the enemy until the following June.

While the events just related were occur-

ring on land, the British fleet sailed round to Delaware bay, which it afterward ascended on its way to Philadelphia; but its passage was obstructed by Fort Mifflin on the Pennsylvania shore of the Delaware river, Fort Mercer on the New Jersey shore, and heavy *chevaux-de-frise* in the channel of the river. The forts were unsuccessfully assailed by land troops sent by General Howe to coöperate with the fleet. Fort Mifflin, which was defended by a small

While the Americans met with misfortunes in Pennsylvania, General Burgoyne, with ten thousand British troops, was marching southward from Canada, along the western coast of Lake Champlain, toward Albany. Burgoyne took possession of Ticonderoga on the 2d of July; the American troops under General Arthur St. Clair, who had garrisoned the fortress, having fled, on the invader's approach, to Fort Edward, which was then held by three thousand



GENERAL LAFAYETTE IN HIS OLD AGE.

American force under Colonel Christopher Greene, repulsed an attack of two thousand Hessians under Count Donop, who was mortally wounded during the attack. Fort Mercer, garrisoned by a body of American troops under Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, also repulsed the assaults of the enemy; but about the middle of November (1777) both forts were evacuated by their garrisons, and the British fleet sailed up to Philadelphia.

American troops under General Philip Schuyler. St. Clair's rear division was defeated by the enemy at Hubbardton, in the present State of Vermont. The shattered forces of St. Clair joined General Schuyler at Fort Edward on the 12th of July (1777); and the whole American army of the North, then under the command of Schuyler, retreated to the Mohawk river and established a fortified camp in the vicinity of Cohoes Falls.

Burgoyne, after reaching Fort Edward, on the 3d of July, sent out a body of Hessians under Colonel Baum to seize provisions and cattle which the Americans had collected at Bennington, in the present State of Vermont. Baum's Hessians were defeated on the 16th of August, 1777, by the Green Mountain Boys under Colonel John Stark, about five miles from Bennington. On the same day another British detachment was defeated by a small American force under Colonel Seth Warner.



GENERAL BURGOWNE.

While Burgoyne was advancing from the North, a strong force of Canadians, Tories and Indians, under Colonel St. Leger, John Johnson, John Butler, and Joseph Brandt, the famous Mohawk chieftain, invaded the Mohawk Valley, and besieged Fort Schuyler (now Rome) on the 3d of August. General Herkimer, while hastening with a body of New York militia to the relief of Fort Schuyler, was defeated and killed in the battle of Oriskany. When Colonel Benedict Arnold approached Fort Schuyler with an American relief force, the besiegers were driven away and dispersed.

In the meantime General Horatio Gates superseded General Schuyler in the com-

mand of the American army of the North, which had been increased, by a heavy reinforcement of New England militia under General Benjamin Lincoln, to thirteen thousand men. On the 19th of September, 1777, a bloody but indecisive engagement was fought at Bemis's Heights, near Saratoga, between the armies of Gates and Burgoyne. On the 7th of October (1777) another sanguinary battle took place between the same armies, at Saratoga. Ten days afterward (October 17, 1777) Burgoyne surrendered

his whole army of six thousand men to the American general. This great victory produced the liveliest joy in America, and fell like a bomb-shell into the midst of the war party in the British Parliament. It strengthened the peace party in England, and greatly influenced the French Court in favor of the struggling Americans. After returning to England, Burgoyne became a member of Parliament and opposed the war.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, the great champion of the Americans, in a speech in the House of Lords, said: "You can not, my lords, you can not conquer America. * * If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop remained in my country, I never would lay down my arms—never, never, never!" In a burst of indignant eloquence he thundered against the employment of the savage

Indian allies with their tomahawks and scalping-knives for the slaughter of England's own children in America. But his proposals to win back the colonists by measures of reconciliation were haughtily rejected by the obstinate king and his Ministers, who blindly persisted in their determination to reduce the revolted colonists to submission.

In the meantime a strong British force under Sir Henry Clinton was marching up the Hudson river to coöperate with Burgoyne. Clinton captured Forts Clinton and Montgomery, at the passes of the Highlands; but when he heard of Burgoyne's surrender he hastily retreated down the Hudson to New York.

The American flag, composed of thirteen stripes alternately red and white, to represent the thirteen original States, with a blue field in one corner with as many white stars as there were States, was finally adopted by the Continental Congress at Philadelphia, June 14, 1777.

In November, 1777, the American Congress, at York, in Pennsylvania, agreed to an instrument of union, known as the *Articles of Confederation*. By these articles the American States were united into a confederacy for common defense; and the power of declaring and carrying on war, and also the right of concluding treaties, were delegated to the Congress. Under this form of government the United States continued until the adoption of the present National Constitution in 1789—a period of nearly twelve years.

During the severe winter of 1777-'78 Washington's army was encamped at Valley Forge, on the banks of the Schuylkill river, twenty miles north-west from Philadelphia. Many of the troops were without shoes, and left bloody footprints in the snow. But having faith in the justice of their cause, the patriots patiently endured all their hardships, and were resolved to sacrifice everything for the liberties of their country. An unsuccessful attempt was made by some American officers, with General Conway at their head, to transfer the chief command of the American armies from Washington to General Charles Lee.

The surrender of Burgoyne convinced the French court and government that the Americans were able to defend their liberties; and accordingly that government concluded a treaty of alliance with, and recognized the independence of, the United States of America. This act of the French government led to a war between France and England. Even the Ministry was now convinced of the hopelessness of the effort to conquer the revolted colonies, and Lord North introduced two conciliatory bills into Parliament granting the colonists all that they had claimed before their Declaration of Independence. King George III. was as obsti-

nate as ever, but his influence broke down before the general despair. The country, however, stung by its great humiliation in the surrender of Burgoyne, sent fifteen thousand men to recruit the ranks of the army.

In the debates that ensued in Parliament, Lord North found that some of his former supporters were more virulent in their opposition to his Ministry than his political foes. These former partisans of his taunted him for abandoning the high principles of prerogative and British supremacy which he had hitherto maintained, and complained bitterly of the deception by which he had obtained their support. Lord North's conciliatory bills passed the House of Commons, but their progress through the House of Lords was marked by a memorable incident.

The Duke of Richmond and many others of the Whig party openly advocated the purchase of peace even at the cost of acknowledging American independence. The venerable William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, sinking under the weight of years and from the gout, appeared in his seat in the House of Lords for the purpose of protesting against the dismemberment of the British Empire, to whose greatness he had so largely contributed. He was in favor of reconciliation with the colonies, but was resolutely opposed to the acknowledgment of American independence, deprecating such a proceeding with great warmth and eloquence. After the Duke of Richmond had answered his speech, the venerable Earl of Chatham rose in reply; but his powers of nature were exhausted, and he fell on the floor of the House of Lords in a swoon, uttering in a few broken sentences his protest against acknowledging American independence. Among the words he murmured were these: "His Majesty succeeded to an empire as great in extent as its reputation was unsullied. Seventeen years ago this people was the terror of the world. Shall we fall prostrate before the House of Bourbon?" He then sank to the floor unconscious, and in that condition he was removed to his

favorite country-seat, where he died in a few days, May 11, 1778, in the seventieth year of his age.

Thus died the ablest and the most successful statesman that had hitherto wielded the destinies of Great Britain. Parliament paid merited honor to his memory, granting the sum of twenty thousand pounds for the liquidation of his debts, and settling a pension of four thousand pounds on his heirs. His remains were interred with great pomp in Westminster Abbey, and a monument was erected to his memory at the public expense.

Lord North sent commissioners to America to induce the Americans to consent to a peace on the condition that they should return to their allegiance to the British Government, and that Parliament in return should repeal all its obnoxious acts and surrender its pretensions to legislate for the Americans. But the Americans now refused to treat for peace unless Great Britain should withdraw her fleets and armies, and unconditionally acknowledge the independence of the United States; and so the war continued. One of these British commissioners attempted to bribe several members of the American Congress. General Joseph Reed, who had been thus approached, replied: "I am not worth buying; but, such as I am, the King of Great Britain is not rich enough to do it."

When it was known that a powerful French fleet under the Count D'Estaing was on its way to the Delaware, the British army, under Sir Henry Clinton, who had in the meantime succeeded General Howe as British commander-in-chief, evacuated Philadelphia on the 18th of June, 1778, and fled into New Jersey, toward New York. Washington pursued Clinton with twelve thousand men; and at Monmouth Court House, on a hot Sabbath day, June 28, 1778, a sanguinary but indecisive battle was fought. The battle had continued nearly the entire day, and after midnight Clinton and his army fled to New York. Washington crossed the Hudson into New York, and encamped at White Plains until late in

autumn, when he again passed into New Jersey, and went into winter-quarters at Middlebrook, on the Raritan river.

The French fleet under the Count D'Estaing appeared in the Delaware early in July; but the British fleet under Lord Howe having sailed to New York, D'Estaing sailed to Rhode Island, to coöperate with the American army under General John Sullivan in an attempt to expel the British from that State. On the 9th of August, Sullivan landed with a strong force on the island of Rhode Island, and Howe's fleet appeared off the island on the same day. D'Estaing intended to attack Howe; but both fleets being disabled by a terrible storm they were obliged to seek port for repairs. D'Estaing appeared at Newport on the 20th, when Sullivan was near there; but the French admiral refused to give any aid to the American general; whereupon Sullivan retreated northward, and was pursued by the British, who attacked him at Quaker Hill on the 29th of August (1778). Sullivan repulsed the attacks of the enemy; but he was obliged to evacuate the island, as the British had just been reinforced by four thousand troops under General Clinton.

During the year 1778 the Mohawk, Schoharie and Cherry Valleys, in New York, and the Wyoming Valley, in Pennsylvania, were the scenes of the most shocking cruelties perpetrated by the Indians under Joseph Brandt, and the Tories under Colonels John Johnson and John Butler. At the beginning of July eleven hundred Indians and Tories under John Butler entered the lovely valley of Wyoming. Four hundred soldiers and settlers under Colonel Zebulon Butler, the cousin of Colonel John Butler, were utterly routed by the invaders, July 4, 1778. The few soldiers and settlers who had sought refuge in Forty Fort, near Wilkes-Barre, were forced to surrender July 5, 1778; and about three hundred of the inhabitants of the valley, who had fled in the night to the neighboring mountains, were hunted by the savages and their white allies, and massacred in cold blood. The Indians spread death and desolation over

the beautiful valley, setting fire to dwellings and massacring several hundred men, women and children. This horrible tragedy is known as the *Massacre of Wyoming*. In November (1778) Cherry Valley, in New York, was visited by a band of Tories and Indians under Butler and Brandt; and many of the inhabitants were killed, or carried into captivity.

In November, 1778, Sir Henry Clinton

remained under the power of the British until near the end of the war.

The American finances were now in a most wretched condition, as the two hundred million dollars of *Continental Money* issued by the Continental Congress since 1776 had rapidly depreciated, and had become almost worthless by the close of 1778. The Baron de Steuben, the skillful disciplinarian and veteran from the armies of



BARON DE STEUBEN.

sent two thousand of his troops under Colonel Campbell to invade Georgia, thus transferring the seat of actual war to the Southern States. On the 29th of December (1778) Campbell entered Savannah, the American troops under Colonel Robert Howe having evacuated the town on the approach of the British and fled up the Savannah river. Royal authority was now temporarily reestablished in Georgia, and that State re-

Frederick the Great of Prussia, was made Inspector-General of Washington's army, which still remained encamped at Middlebrook, New Jersey.

On the 9th of January, 1779, the British army under General Prevost captured Sunbury, in Georgia. On the 14th of February (1779) a band of Tories under Colonel Boyd was annihilated by a Whig force under Colonel Andrew Pickens in the bat-

tle of Brier Creek. The British, under Colonel Campbell, who had just marched up the Georgia side of the Savannah river, then fled toward the sea-coast, pursued by two thousand American troops under General James Ashe. At Brier Creek, Ashe was defeated on the 3d of March, 1779, by the British under General Prevost. After the battle of Brier Creek, Prevost invaded South Carolina and marched against Charleston. An American army under General Benjamin Lincoln hastened to the relief of Charleston, whereupon Prevost retreated with great haste toward Savannah. On the 20th of June (1779) a severe battle took place at Stono Ferry between detachments of the two armies, which resulted in the repulse of the Americans.

An expedition composed of fifteen hundred British and Hessian troops under Governor Tryon made a destructive raid into Connecticut in April, 1779. After defeating the Americans under General Putnam at Greenwich, Tryon retreated westward to New York, pursued by Putnam, who retook some of the enemy's plunder. In May (1779) Sir George Collier, with a small British squadron, and General Matthews, with an English land force, ravaged the country around Norfolk, in Virginia. On the 31st of May, Stony Point, on the west side of the Hudson river, was taken by the British under Sir Henry Clinton, who, on the following day (June 1, 1779), also captured Verplanck's Point, on the opposite side of the river. In the beginning of July, Tryon, with two thousand British troops, made another destructive invasion of Connecticut, laying the beautiful towns of East Haven, Fairfield and Norwalk in ashes.

About midnight, July 16, 1779, General Anthony Wayne, with a small American force, recaptured Stony Point, after a short but desperate fight, and made the British garrison, commanded by Colonel Johnson, prisoners of war. The loss of the English in killed, wounded and captured was about six hundred men. On the 19th of the same month (July, 1779) Major Henry Lee, at the head of a small body of Americans, captured Paulus Hook (now Jersey City),

opposite New York City, after killing, wounding and capturing two hundred of the enemy. In August a British fleet destroyed an American flotilla off Castine, on the coast of the present State of Maine.

During 1778 and 1779 important events were occurring in the vast wilderness west of the Allegheny mountains. For several years Daniel Boone, the great pioneer, had struggled with the Indians in the present State of Kentucky. Kaskaskia, on the Mississippi, and Vincennes, on the Wabash, were wrested from the British by the Americans under Major George Rogers Clarke of Virginia. Vincennes was recaptured by the enemy, but Clarke again obtained possession of that post in February (1779).

In the summer of 1779 the Americans sent an expedition under General John Sullivan to punish the New York Indians for their raids and massacres in the Wyoming and Cherry Valleys in the previous year. At the head of nearly five thousand men, Sullivan invaded the country of the Six Nations, in Western New York, where, in the space of three weeks, he destroyed the crops of the Indians and forty of their villages.

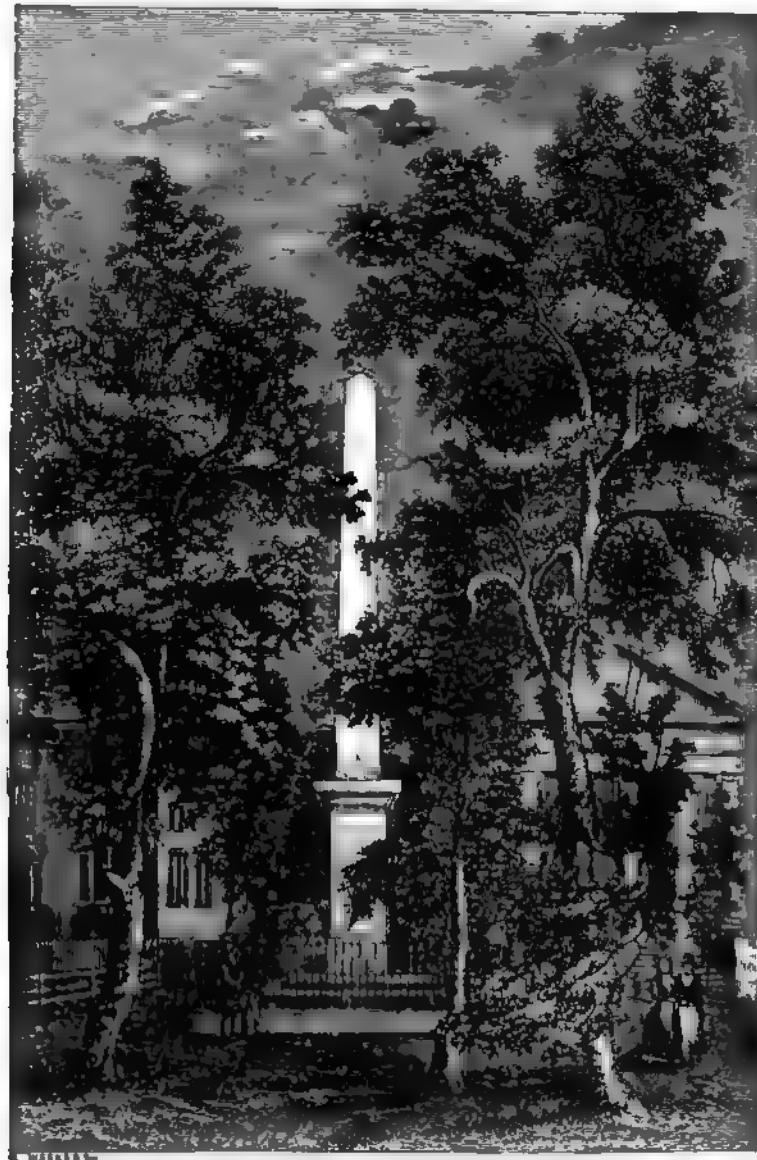
The American army under General Lincoln, aided by the French fleet under the Count D'Estaing, commenced to besiege the English at Savannah on the 23d of September, 1779. A heavy assault upon the British works, on the 9th of October, was repulsed after five hours of fighting, in which the Americans and French lost one thousand men; the brave Pole, Count Pulaski, being among the slain. D'Estaing sailed with his fleet to the West Indies, and Lincoln was obliged to raise the siege and retreat to Charleston.

On the 23d of September, 1779, the *Bonhomme Richard*, an American vessel, commanded by John Paul Jones, gained a brilliant victory off Flamborough Head, on the eastern coast of England, over the English vessel *Serapis*, commanded by Captain Pearson, after a bloody fight of several hours. The *Serapis* surrendered, as did also the *Countess of Scarborough*, another large Brit-

ish vessel; and the *Bonhomme Richard* was so much injured that she sunk sixteen hours after the engagement.

Another power was now added to the enemies of England. With the hope of recovering the rock of Gibraltar, Spain de-

At the close of 1779 Sir Henry Clinton sailed, with five thousand troops, in Admiral Arbuthnot's fleet, from New York, for Charleston, South Carolina, which city was then garrisoned by the American army under General Lincoln. On the 9th of



PULASKI'S MONUMENT, AT CHRIST CHURCH, SAVANNAH.

clared war against Great Britain in June, 1779. A combined French and Spanish armament attempted an invasion of England in August, and a united French and Spanish naval force laid siege to Gibraltar.

April, 1780, Arbuthnot, with the British fleet, passed up Charleston harbor, and both he and Clinton, who landed troops on the islands below Charleston, laid siege to the city. On the 14th of April (1780) a party

of Americans under Colonel Huger was defeated by the British cavalry under Colonel Tarleton, at Monk's Corner, some distance north from the city. After the siege had lasted a month, and after the city had suffered heavy bombardments and been on fire in many places, Lincoln surrendered Charleston, together with his army and many citizens, six thousand in number, and four hundred pieces of cannon, to Clinton, on the 12th of May, 1780. Early in the following month Clinton sailed with the greater part of the British army for New York, leaving Lord Cornwallis with a small force to complete the subjugation of the Southern States.

Already Cornwallis had marched up the Santee to Camden; Lieutenant-Colonel Cruger, with a small British force, marched to and garrisoned Fort Ninety-Six; and Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, with another British detachment, marched to and garrisoned the town of Augusta, in Georgia. At the Waxaw Creek the British cavalry under Colonel Tarleton captured and massacred a small force of American infantry under Colonel Buford. All of South Carolina was now at the mercy of the British, and Cornwallis prepared for the reestablishment of royal authority in that State. Soon, however, when it was known that General Horatio Gates was advancing southward with an American army for the aid of the patriots of the Carolinas, guerrilla leaders like Thomas Sumter, Francis Marion, Andrew Pickens and George Rogers Clarke, appeared in the field at the head of small detachments, falling upon and annoying bands of British and Tories. Sumter was repulsed at Rocky Mount on the 30th of July, but he afterward almost annihilated Tarleton's cavalry at Hanging Rock.

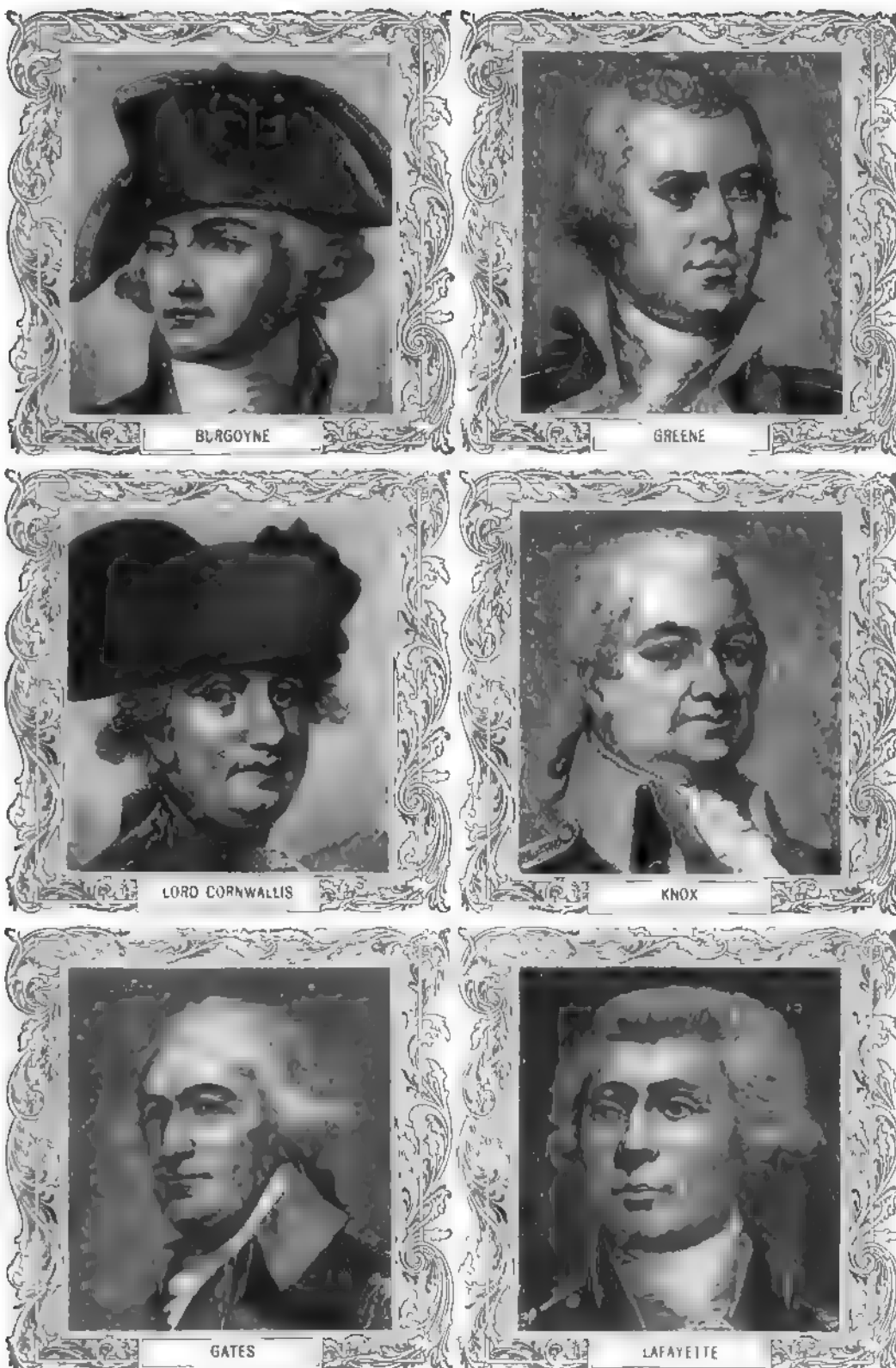
In August, 1780, the American army under General Gates entered South Carolina from the North. On the 16th of that month Gates's army was thoroughly defeated and dispersed by the British forces under Lords Cornwallis and Rawdon in the battle of Sanders' Creek, near Camden. The Americans lost one thousand men, the

brave Baron De Kalb being among the slain; and General Gates fled to Charlotte, North Carolina. Two days after the defeat of Gates, Colonel Sumter's force was almost broken up by the British cavalry under Colonel Tarleton, on Fishing Creek. These American misfortunes again prostrated South Carolina at the feet of the enemy.

Cornwallis attempted to restore British authority in South Carolina by harsh measures; but his tyranny prevented a reconciliation, and inflamed the patriots with deadly hatred of English rule. On the 7th of October (1780) a body of fifteen hundred Tory militia under Major Patrick Ferguson was completely defeated by backwoods patriots under Colonels Campbell, Shelby, Cleveland, Sevier, Winston, McDowell and Williams, on King's Mountain, in the north-western part of South Carolina; the patriots taking eight hundred prisoners and fifteen hundred stand of arms, and Major Ferguson being among the slain. The activity of the guerrilla leaders, Colonels Sumter, Marion, Pickens and Clarke, alarmed Cornwallis, and caused him to retire from North Carolina, which State he had just invaded, and to return to South Carolina.

In June, 1780, a British force of five thousand men under General Matthews invaded New Jersey from New York city. After being defeated in a skirmish at Springfield by the Americans under General Nathaniel Greene, the invaders again retired from New Jersey and returned to New York. At the close of 1780 a French fleet under Admiral de Ternay, carrying six thousand French land troops under the Count de Rochambeau, landed at Newport, Rhode Island.

While General Washington was in New England, conferring with the French officers, General Benedict Arnold was bargaining with Sir Henry Clinton for the surrender of the important post of West Point, on the Hudson river, into the hands of the enemy. Arnold, who had incurred vast debts by his extravagance, had been charged by the Congress with fraudulent transactions while military governor in Philadelphia.



THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.



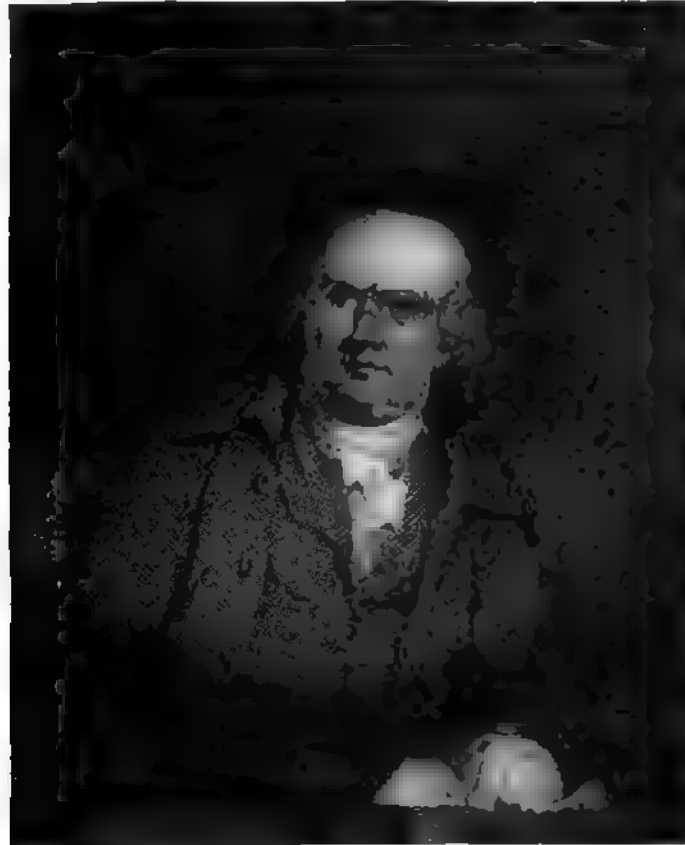
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As a punishment, the Congress sentenced him to a reprimand from Washington. Arnold determined to have revenge by plotting treason against his country and aiding its enemies. His correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton was carried on through the young and accomplished Major John Andre, Clinton's adjutant-general. The treasonable correspondence between Arnold and Clinton had been carried on for

Arnold succeeded in making his escape to the enemy; and he received a commission of brigadier-general in the British army, and fifty thousand dollars, as a reward for his treason to his country. Major Andre, like General Burgoyne, was a descendant of the French Huguenots who had settled in England after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Louis XIV. in 1685.

When it became known to the British



ROBERT MORRIS.

more than a year, when, in September, 1780, Arnold and Andre met personally for the first time at Haverstraw, on the west side of the Hudson river. When their bargain was closed, Major Andre prepared to return to Clinton's headquarters at New York. On his way, Andre was stopped and made a prisoner by three young American militia-men; and on the 2d of October (1780) he was hanged as a spy by the Americans.

4—81.—U. H.

Ministry that a secret commercial treaty had been concluded between Holland and the United States, the British Parliament declared war against Holland, on the 20th of December, 1780. Thus England had now to contend, without any assistance, against France, Spain, Holland and her rebellious colonies in North America. At about the same time the Empress Catharine II. of Russia induced the govern-

ments of Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, Germany and Portugal to unite with her in a maritime alliance called the *Armed Neutrality*. The alleged object of this powerful league was the defense of the neutral powers against the right of search claimed by England, but its real object was to deprive Great Britain of her maritime superiority.

On the 1st of January, 1781, about thirteen hundred Pennsylvania troops left Washington's camp at Morristown, New Jersey, and marched toward Philadelphia, for the purpose of compelling the Congress to provide the soldiers with pay and clothing, which duty had long been neglected. When the mutineers arrived at Princeton, British emissaries sent by General Clinton tried to bribe them to enter the king's service; but the mutineers, indignant at the implied doubt of their patriotism and devotion to the cause of freedom, handed the emissaries over to General Wayne for punishment as spies. At Princeton the mutineers were also met by a committee from the Congress, promising that that body would provide for their necessities as soon as they returned to duty. The Pennsylvania mutineers accepted the promise and returned to camp. On the 18th of the same month (January, 1781) some of the New Jersey troops at Pompton, in the same State, also mutinied; but this disorder was suppressed by military force, and two of the ringleaders were hanged as a punishment for their mutiny.

Warned of these events, the Congress and the American people put forth greater exertions to ameliorate the condition of the troops; and Robert Morris of Philadelphia was appointed by the Congress to the post of financial agent of the American government.

Early in January, 1781, Arnold the traitor, with sixteen hundred English and Tories, invaded Virginia, went up the James river, and destroyed much property at Richmond. In March, General Lafayette was sent with twelve hundred Americans to oppose Arnold's further advance in Virginia; but the traitor was soon reinforced by two thousand

English troops under General Phillips, when he went up the James river on another marauding expedition. Soon afterward Arnold left Virginia, and Phillips died at Petersburg.

The Southern States were the chief theater of war in 1781. General Nathaniel Greene was entrusted with the command of the American armies in the South at the close of 1780. On the 17th of January, 1781, a part of Greene's army, under General Daniel Morgan, defeated Tarleton's cavalry in the battle of the Cowpens, in the north-western part of South Carolina, on which occasion Colonels William A. Washington, of Virginia, and John Eager Howard, of Maryland, behaved very gallantly. After the battle Morgan retreated toward Virginia with his five hundred prisoners, and was pursued by the British army under Lord Cornwallis. Greene soon joined Morgan, and the whole American army made a safe retreat across North Carolina into Virginia. After the Americans had crossed the Dan river, Cornwallis, greatly dispirited, gave up the pursuit, and took post at Hillsborough, in North Carolina.

After a short rest in Virginia, Greene marched into North Carolina to oppose Cornwallis. A bloody battle was fought at Guilford Court House, near Hillsborough, on the 15th of March, 1781. Greene was driven from the field; but the army of Cornwallis suffered severely, and after the battle it retired to Wilmington, on the Cape Fear river. After the battle of Guilford Court House, Greene advanced into South Carolina to oppose the British under Lord Rawdon. On the 19th of April, Greene was defeated by Rawdon in the battle of Hobkirk's Hill, near Camden. About the middle of May (1781) four important military posts in South Carolina fell into the hands of the Americans.

On the 22d of May (1781) Greene laid siege to Fort Ninety-Six. After vainly attempting for nearly a month to take the fort, Greene relinquished the siege and retired from the place on the 19th of June, and marched to the High Hills of Santee

American troops under Colonels Pickens, Clarke and Henry Lee captured Augusta, in Georgia, on the 5th of June, 1781, after a siege of twelve days.

In August, 1781, Lord Rawdon sailed for England, leaving his army in command of Colonel Stuart. Before Rawdon's departure a tragic scene occurred in Charleston. Among those who were paroled by the British after the capture of Charleston in 1780 was Colonel Isaac Hayne of South Carolina. When the British were driven

throughout the Southern States, and was condemned by the Americans as an act of unwarrantable cruelty; but it was strongly urged by the British as a measure of justice.

During the summer of 1781 Greene encamped on the High Hills of Santee. On the 8th of September he fought with the English under Colonel Stuart the battle of Eutaw Springs. Greene was driven from his position, but during the night the British fled to Charleston and the American army reoccupied the battle-field. The Amer-



GENERAL NATHANIEL GREENE.

from the vicinity of his residence, Hayne, considering himself released from the obligations of his parole, again took up arms against the British and was taken prisoner. He was brought before Colonel Balfour, the British commandant at Charleston, who condemned him to death as a traitor, although many Tories petitioned in his favor. Lord Rawdon, who was a man of generous feelings, vainly exerted himself to save the prisoner, but finally consented to his execution. This action caused great excitement

among the American guerrilla parties under Colonels Marion, Sumter and Henry Lee confined the enemy to the sea-board; so that at the close of 1781 Charleston and Savannah were the only posts held by the British south of New York.

Lord Cornwallis left Wilmington, North Carolina, on the 25th of April, 1781, and arrived at Petersburg, Virginia, on the 20th of May, where he took command of the troops of the deceased General Phillips. Cornwallis moved beyond Richmond, de-

stroying a vast amount of property; but he was compelled to retire before the Americans under General Wayne, Lafayette and Baron Steuben. Soon afterward Cornwallis retired to the sea-coast, and fortified Yorktown, on the York river, near its mouth.

Early in July, 1781, Washington's army was reinforced by French troops under the Count de Rochambeau, and an attempt was about to be made to expel the English army under Sir Henry Clinton from New York city; but when Clinton was reinforced by three thousand fresh troops from England, Washington resolved to march into Virginia for the purpose of driving the British under Cornwallis from that State. After Washington had marched through New Jersey, Clinton sent the traitor Arnold on a plundering expedition into Connecticut, for the purpose of inducing Washington to turn back. Although Arnold burned New London and massacred the American garrison under Colonel Ledyard at Fort Griswold, Washington continued his march for Virginia.

On the 28th of September, 1781, the allied American and French armies, under General Washington and the Count de Rochambeau, appeared before Yorktown. The Count de Grasse, with a powerful French fleet, arrived in the mouth of the York river, from the West Indies. A vigorous siege of the English works was soon commenced. The besiegers opened a heavy cannonade upon the British works on the 9th of October, and two of the British redoubts were captured by American and French storming parties under Lafayette. Reduced to great extremities, Cornwallis attempted to escape on the 16th with his army, and join Clinton at New York, but was prevented from so doing by a terrific storm; and three days afterward (October 19, 1781) he surrendered Yorktown and his entire army of seven thousand men to General Washington, and his shipping to the Count de Grasse. A few days after the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, Sir Henry Clinton appeared at the mouth of the Chesapeake bay with seven thousand English troops to assist Cornwal-

lis; but, being too late, he soon returned to New York, astonished and chagrined. Washington's army returned to the Hudson, while the French troops passed the winter in Virginia.

The surrender of Lord Cornwallis was hailed by the Americans as a harbinger of peace, and caused unbounded rejoicings throughout the United States. From every American hearthstone, from pulpits, from the American army, from legislative halls and from Congress, went up shouts to the Lord God Omnipotent for the great victory. A messenger with the despatch from Washington reached Philadelphia at midnight October 23, 1781; and the watchmen cried out: "Twelve o'clock and Cornwallis is taken." Very soon lights were seen in all the houses, and the excited people soon poured into the streets and made the air resound with their huzzas. At an early hour in the morning, October 24, 1781, Secretary Thomson read the letter to the assembled Congress. That body addressed thanks to the officers and soldiers, and then went in procession to church to offer thanks to God for the great triumph. The Congress also appointed the 13th of December following as a day of national thanksgiving.

The surrender of Cornwallis struck terror and amazement into the hearts of Lord North and his supporters in the British Parliament. In his dismay Lord North paced the room, and, throwing his arms about wildly, he kept exclaiming: "O God! it is all over, it is all over!" The English people, who had long desired peace, were now fully convinced of the utter impossibility of restoring England's colonial empire in North America; and their demands found expression in Parliament, as we shall presently see.

THE WAR IN OTHER QUARTERS.

Although military operations were thus ended in North America, hostilities were now prosecuted with the greatest animosity between Great Britain and her European enemies. Since 1778 the war had extended to other parts of the world, and had been

conducted with various success by the British against the French, the Spaniards and the Dutch on the ocean, in Africa and in the East and West Indies. The British fleets under Admirals Rodney, Keppel, Graves, Parker and others maintained the honor of England on the seas against the attacks of her combined enemies.

The first collision between England and France in the War of the American Revolution occurred at sea. A British fleet under Admiral Keppel had been sent to cruise in the English Channel. Keppel encountered the French fleet under D'Orvilliers off Ushant, on the western coast of France, July 27, 1778; but being badly supported by his second in command, Sir Hugh Palliser, Keppel obtained no decisive success. Lord North's Ministry took advantage of this circumstance to crush Keppel, who had been their political opponent; and at their instigation Palliser preferred a charge of misconduct against his superior. But the court-martial's verdict disappointed the expectations of the Ministry, as Keppel was honorably acquitted; while Palliser was afterward tried for disobedience of orders, and was partially condemned, being saved from a more ignominious verdict only by the interposition of the whole power of the Ministry.

Soon after the recognition of American independence by France, the English East India Company sent orders to its officers at Madras to attack the neighboring post of Pondicherry, the capital of the French possessions in India. An army of ten thousand men—Englishmen and Sepoys—accordingly besieged that post, and compelled it to surrender in October of the same year, 1778. Chandernagore and Mahé—the other French possessions in India—were also captured by the English during 1778; so that the French power in India was almost annihilated in one campaign.

During the fall of 1778 and the ensuing winter the West Indies were the chief seat of the naval operations of England and France. In September, 1778, the governor of the French island of Martinique con-

quered the English island of Dominica, and obtained possession of a large quantity of military stores; but in December of the same year a British fleet under Admiral Barrington conquered the French island of St. Lucia, after the French fleet under the Count d'Estaing had failed to relieve the island.

As we have seen, Spain declared war against England in June, 1779. Spain had offered her mediation between England and France merely as the forerunner of a rupture with England; and, on the pretext that her mediation had been slighted, she issued a declaration of war against Great Britain, as the ally of France. A combined French and Spanish land and naval force laid siege to Gibraltar.

Early in 1779 a French fleet attacked and captured the British forts and factories on the rivers Senegal and Gambia, on the western coast of Africa. Later in the same year the French conquered the English islands of St. Vincent and Granada in the West Indies; but, as we have seen, the French fleet under the Count d'Estaing, in conjunction with an American land force, was repulsed in the siege of Savannah.

In August, 1779, a combined French and Spanish armament swept the English Channel and attempted an invasion of England. Lord Sandwich, the First Lord of the Admiralty, was notoriously incompetent for his position; but his colleagues in the Ministry, with the blind obstinacy which characterized all their measures, resolved to retain him in office, in spite of the fact that by his neglect Plymouth had been left in such a defenseless condition that its dockyards and arsenal were only saved from destruction by the ignorance of the French and Spanish admirals. Fortunately for the English, the allied admirals thus raised the blockade of Plymouth, and the army of sixty thousand men which had been assembled on the opposite coast of France was withdrawn.

Even Ireland turned against England in this emergency, and a revolution began in that kingdom which at one time threatened a

separation from Great Britain, but this revolution terminated bloodlessly. Most of the army necessary for the defense of Ireland had been withdrawn from that country and sent to America to aid in suppressing the rebellion against British authority there, and when the allied French and Spanish fleets menaced Ireland with invasion there were no preparations for the defense of that island. Left to themselves, the Irish people displayed a spirit worthy of the crisis. Companies of volunteers were enrolled in every town and district of Ireland. The British government cheerfully supplied arms. The volunteers chose officers, and the patriotic Earl of Charlemont was appointed commander-in-chief of these independent companies, numbering one hundred thousand men.

When England recovered her wonted naval superiority the fear of invasion was removed; but the hundred thousand Irish volunteers retained their arms and refused to disband, thus preserving their organization. They had learned the secret of their strength, and were resolved to effect the regeneration of their country by establishing the independence of the Irish Parliament and the freedom of Irish commerce. They accordingly demanded the repeal of Poyning's Law, an old statute passed by the English Parliament during the reign of Henry VII. requiring all acts passed by the Parliament of Ireland to be approved by that of England before they could become valid. They also demanded that the Irish House of Lords should be recognized as a final Court of Appeal for Ireland. This was a new and unexpected difficulty for Lord North's Ministry; but the Ministry pursued consistently their steady course of narrow and illiberal policy and refused to make any concession, thus bringing Ireland to the very brink of revolution.

Early in January, 1780, the British fleet under Admiral Sir George Rodney, the greatest English admiral except Nelson and Blake, while on the way to relieve the beleaguered fortress of Gibraltar, captured a Spanish squadron of seven ships-of-war and

many transports; and several days afterward this same British fleet defeated a much larger Spanish squadron off Cape St. Vincent, on the coast of Portugal, capturing six of the heaviest Spanish vessels and dispersing the remainder. By these victories Admiral Rodney was enabled to relieve the beleaguered British garrisons of Gibraltar and Minorca; after which he sailed to the West Indies, and thrice encountered the French fleet, but with only partial success.

In August, 1780, the English suffered a heavy loss in the capture of the outward bound East and West India fleets of merchant vessels by a Spanish fleet off the western coast of France. The Spaniards took most of the English forts on the Mississippi during the year 1780.

Lord North's Ministry had hitherto found Parliament ready to sustain all their measures, but the many petitions presented from the counties and the principal towns of Great Britain against the Ministry soon gave rise to a formidable opposition to the administration. At length, April 6, 1780, Mr. Dunning presented his famous resolution in the House of Commons "that the influence of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." This resolution was carried by a majority of twenty-eight votes; but a second resolution, intended to give effect to the first, was rejected by a majority of fifty-one; and the Ministry soon recovered its wonted superiority.

In the midst of the war, the British Parliament did a wise act in repealing some of the penal laws against the Roman Catholics; but this action of Parliament produced the most disgraceful riots in some of the leading cities of Great Britain, particularly Edinburgh and London. In June, 1780, an immense mob, aroused by the exertions of some misguided bigots and fanatics, assembled in St. George's Fields, London, to petition for a repeal of the laws that had been passed in favor of the Roman Catholics. After adopting several resolutions the mob proceeded in large parties to the avenues leading to the House of Commons, and there insulted several of the

members. Lord George Gordon, a visionary enthusiast, came out of the House of Commons and informed the mob that their petition had been rejected. Thereupon the enraged mob proceeded to the greatest outrages and held control of the city for several days, burning the Roman Catholic chapels in and about town, and also several private dwellings, the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench and the Fleet. Even the Bank of England was threatened, and was only preserved with the greatest difficulty. The greatest loss sustained by the public was the destruction of the manuscripts of Lord Mansfield, the most distinguished lawyer of his time, who had made himself obnoxious by the part which he had taken as a judge in sustaining prosecutions for libels against the government. The riot was only suppressed when the military were called out, and after two hundred and twenty of the mob had been killed or wounded.

The position taken by Great Britain in claiming the right to search neutral vessels for contraband goods, along with her seizure of vessels not laden with exceptionable cargoes, produced a formidable opposition to her in 1780 by most of the European powers, which united in the *Armed Neutrality* for the protection of the commerce of neutral nations. The instigator and head of this powerful league was the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia, who asserted in her manifesto to the courts of England, France and Spain that she had adopted the following principles, which she would uphold and defend with all her naval power: 1. That neutral ships should enjoy free navigation from one port to another, even upon the coasts of belligerent powers, except to ports actually blockaded. 2. That all effects conveyed by such ships, excepting only warlike stores, should be free. 3. That whenever any vessel should have shown by its papers that it was not the carrier of any contraband article it should not be liable to seizure or detention. 4. That only such ports should be considered blockaded before which was stationed a force sufficient to render the entrance perilous. Sweden, Denmark, Hol-

land, Portugal, Prussia and the German Empire readily joined the Empress of Russia in the Armed Neutrality. France and Spain expressed their approval of the terms of this maritime league; while England, thus opposed by the whole civilized world, was obliged to submit to this exposition of the rights of neutral powers.

Since the conclusion of the alliance between France and the United States mutual recriminations had been almost constantly passing between England and Holland, the former accusing the latter of supplying the enemies of Great Britain with military and naval stores contrary to the treaty stipulations, and the Dutch Republic complaining that many of her vessels not laden with contraband goods had been seized and carried into British ports. A partial collision between an English fleet and a Dutch squadron early in 1780 increased the hostile feelings of the two nations. The papers found in the possession of Mr. Laurens, a former president of the American Congress, upon his capture by a British cruiser, revealed the existence of a commercial treaty between Holland and the United States; whereupon England declared war against Holland, December 20, 1780. The Dutch shipping in British ports was detained, and the British Ministry sent orders to the British commanders in the West Indies to attack the Dutch possessions in that quarter immediately.

Accordingly the British fleet under Admiral Sir George Rodney appeared before the Dutch island of St. Eustatia, a free port abounding with wealth as a great emporium of the West India trade. The inhabitants were taken wholly by surprise when Admiral Rodney sent a peremptory order to the Dutch governor of the island to surrender the island and its dependencies within an hour, February 3, 1781. Unable to make any resistance, the governor surrendered the island unconditionally; and property estimated at the value of four million pounds sterling became the prize of the captors. The Dutch merchant fleet of thirty vessels taken by the British was recaptured by a French squadron and

conveyed to Brest, in France. A British fleet reduced the settlements of Demerara and Essequibo, in Dutch Guiana, in South America; but a British squadron on its way to attack the Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope was defeated off the Cape de Verde Islands by the French fleet under Bailli de Suffrein.

In May, 1781, the Spanish governor of Louisiana completed the conquest of Florida from the English by the capture of Pensacola. The English and French fleets had several partial engagements in the West Indies in April, May and June, 1781, but without any decisive results. Late in May (1781) a large French land force effected a landing on the island of Tobago, which surrendered to them June 3d. In August (1781) a severe but indecisive engagement occurred on the Dogger Bank, in the North Sea, between the English fleet under Admiral Sir Peter Parker and the Dutch fleet under Admiral Zoutman. Both fleets were rendered almost unmanageable, and regained their respective ports with extreme difficulty.

As we have seen, the war in North America ended with the surrender of Lord Cornwallis to General Washington at Yorktown, Virginia, October 19, 1781. In the meantime the attention of all Europe was attracted to the siege of Gibraltar by the combined armies and navies of France and Spain. The fortress had been besieged since 1779, but the besiegers had made no progress in the way of its reduction. The garrison in the fortress consisted of seven thousand British troops under General Elliot, and suffered greatly for want of fuel and provisions, while being exposed to an almost incessant cannonade from the Spanish batteries situated on the peninsula connecting the fortress with the mainland. During this winter, in May, 1781, one hundred thousand shot and shell were thrown into the fortress. All Europe considered a longer defence of the fortress impossible; but suddenly, on the night of November 27, 1781, about three thousand men from the fortress and British garrison made a sally

from the fortress, and stormed and utterly demolished the enemy's works in less than an hour, inflicting a damage estimated at two million pounds sterling.

During the same month (November, 1781) the French fleet under the Count de Grasse had recaptured the Dutch island of St. Eustatia, in the West Indies, from the British. The French afterward conquered the island of St. Christophers, Nevis and Montserrat from the English. In February, 1782, the French also recaptured the Dutch settlements of Demerara and Essequibo, in Guiana, in South America, from the English.

In February, 1782, the Spaniards compelled the island of Minorca to surrender, after a long siege almost as memorable as that of Gibraltar, during which the British garrison made a most heroic defense. It appeared that England would be driven into a dishonorable peace, but the heroic determination of the English people to uphold their national honor was never more strikingly manifested. With the whole civilized world united against her, Great Britain was rescued from her dangerous and humiliating position by the victories of her navy.

The British fleet under Admiral Rodney gained a great and decisive victory over the French fleet under the Count de Grasse in the West Indies, between the islands of Martinique and Guadaloupe, April 12, 1782; most of the French ships being captured, that of the Count de Grasse among the number, and the French loss in killed, wounded and prisoners being eleven thousand men, while the loss of the English in killed and wounded was only about eleven hundred.

During the year 1782 the fortress of Gibraltar, which had bidden defiance to the armies and navies of France and Spain for three years, sustained one of the most memorable sieges recorded in the annals of warfare. The Spaniards had constructed many enormous floating batteries in the bay of Gibraltar, and twelve hundred pieces of heavy ordnance had been brought to the place to be used in the different methods of

assault. In addition to their floating batteries, the besiegers had eighty large boats, mounted with heavy guns and mortars, along with an immense number of frigates, sloops and schooners; while the united fleets of France and Spain, consisting of fifty ships-of-the-line, were to cover and support the assault on the fortress. Eighty thousand barrels of gunpowder were provided for the occasion, and more than a hundred thousand French and Spanish soldiers and seamen were employed in the siege of the strong fortress.

A grand attack was opened on the fortress on September 13, 1782. Early in the morning of that day the Spanish floating batteries came forward, and at ten o'clock they took their stations about a thousand yards from the rock of Gibraltar and opened a terrific cannonade, which was joined in by all the artillery and mortars in the Spanish lines and approaches. At the same time the heroic British garrison under General Elliot replied with all their batteries, discharging both hot and cold shot; and for several hours both sides maintained a terrific cannonade and bombardment without the least intermission. About two o'clock in the afternoon the largest Spanish floating battery was observed to emit smoke, and toward midnight it was plainly perceived to be on fire. The fight was still raging fiercely, and other floating batteries began to kindle. Signals of distress were made, and boats were sent to take the men from the burning ships; but these boats were interrupted by the English gunboats, which now advanced to the assault, raking the whole line of Spanish floating batteries with their fire, and thus completing the confusion. The floating batteries were soon abandoned to the flames or to the English.

The groans and shrieks of the Spaniards on board the burning ships were pitiful beyond description, and the Spaniards ceased firing; whereupon the English, with characteristic humanity, forgetting that the Spaniards were their enemies, and thinking of them only as suffering fellowmen, hastened to their rescue, and saved four hun-

dred of them from the perils by which they were surrounded. But all the floating batteries were consumed by the flames, and the French and Spanish armies and fleets were unable to renew the assault. During the night the brave garrison of Gibraltar was relieved by Lord Howe's fleet from England, and the French and Spaniards relinquished the siege of the impregnable fortress.

The siege of Gibraltar was the last important event of the War of the American Revolution in Europe; but in the meantime the struggle had extended to India, where Hyder Ali, Sultan of Mysore, a soldier of fortune, had been engaged in hostilities with the English East India Company since 1767, but with little success until the War of American Independence, when he was aided by the French and the Dutch. After the English East India Company, during the administration of Warren Hastings, who had become Governor General of British India in 1773, had reduced all the French settlements in India and humbled the Mahrattas, Hyder Ali and his valiant son Tippoo Saib entered the Carnatic in 1780 with an army of a hundred thousand native Hindoos, aided by a French force, and attacked and annihilated the English forces in the presidency of Madras under Baillie and Fletcher, killing or capturing the whole force. Madras was in extreme danger of capture. In 1781 the English were reinforced; and the progress of Hyder Ali in the Carnatic was checked by Sir Eyre Coote, who recovered the Carnatic and totally routed Hyder Ali at the head of two hundred thousand men at Porto Novo, Cuddalore and Pallalore.

In 1782 the English captured Negapatam and all the Dutch settlements in India; but this success was interrupted by the defeat of Colonel Braithwaite, whose forces were surprised, surrounded and cut to pieces by a native force under Tippoo Saib and an auxiliary French force under M. Lally. In 1783 several indecisive actions occurred between the British fleet under Admiral Hughes and the French fleet under Bailli

de Suffrein in the Indian seas, but the operations on land were impeded by the jealousies of the civil and military authorities. Hyder Ali died in 1782, and was succeeded as Sultan of Mysore by his son Tippoo Saib, who, after the conclusion of peace between England and France in 1783, concluded a treaty with the English East India Company, in which the Company made humiliating concessions which detracted from the respect hitherto paid to the English name in India, A. D. 1784.

END OF THE WAR.

As we have seen, the surrender of Lord Cornwallis had fully convinced the English people of the folly and hopelessness of recovering the British dominion in North America; but Lord North's Ministry declared their determination to carry on "a war of posts." The nation at large opposed this foolish project; and Parliament, yielding to the voice of the English people, gradually withdrew its support from the administration. Finally, on March 4, 1782, on the motion of General Conway, the House of Commons voted that "whoever shall advise His Majesty to the continuation of the American war shall be considered a public enemy." This vote of want of confidence in the Ministry led to the immediate resignation of Lord North and his colleagues; whereupon a Whig Ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham came into power, pledged to the restoration of peace. A member of this Ministry was the great statesman Charles James Fox, an earnest friend of the Americans during the whole period of the war, and an opponent of the system of Parliamentary taxation of the colonies, which had led to the war.

The new Ministry immediately commenced negotiations for peace with all the belligerent powers at war with England, and sent orders to the British commanders in America to cease from hostilities against the Americans, but the negotiations were protracted for some months by the changes in the British Ministry, while hostilities were prosecuted with vigor between Great

Britain and her European enemies until after the repulse of the French and Spaniards in the siege of Gibraltar, in September, 1782. The Marquis of Rockingham, whose administration was signalized by the concession of Ireland's legislative independence, died in July, 1782; whereupon the Earl of Shelburne became Prime Minister, which so displeased Mr. Fox and the larger Whig faction which he headed that he and his friends in the Ministry resigned.

Conferences for peace were opened at Paris, through the mediation of the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany and the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia; and, under the Ministry of the Earl of Shelburne, Great Britain concluded peace with the belligerent powers with which she had been at war. The United States appointed John Adams of Massachusetts, John Jay of New York, Dr. Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia and Henry Laurens of South Carolina to proceed to France as commissioners to conclude a treaty of peace with Great Britain; but Mr. Jefferson did not serve.

By the Preliminary Peace of Versailles, November 30, 1782, between England and the United States, the former acknowledged the independence of the latter. England concluded the Preliminary Peace of Paris with France and Spain, January 20, 1783; England and France restoring their respective conquests, except the island of Tobago, in the West Indies, and the forts on the river Senegal, in Africa, which were retained by France; while Spain kept Florida and the island of Minorca, but could not purchase Gibraltar, though she offered Oran, in Africa, and the island of Porto Rico, in the West Indies, in exchange. Though England unreservedly acknowledged the independence of the United States, she retained Canada, the Hudson's Bay Territory, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Labrador and Newfoundland. Finally, September 3, 1783, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Paris between the United States, Great Britain, France and Spain; and the United States became an ac-

knowledge power among the nations of the earth, with its boundaries extending northward to the Great Lakes and Canada, westward to the Mississippi, and southward to the Spanish possessions on the Gulf of Mexico, and obtained an unlimited right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland.

The preliminary treaty of peace between England and Holland was signed at Paris, September 3, 1783; but the definitive treaty between these two powers was not signed until May 20, 1784, when the Dutch ceded Negapatam to Great Britain, and granted to British subjects a free trade in the Indian seas in which the Dutch had hitherto maintained an exclusive commerce and navigation.

Although the establishment of American independence may have been galling to English pride, the United States as an independent republic were of far greater commercial value to the mother country than they had been as English colonies; while the overtaxed English people were relieved of the burden of supporting an extensive military establishment three thousand miles from home, and their material prosperity was thereby unhampered.

Says John Richard Green, the English historian: "What startled men most at the time was the discovery that England was not ruined by the loss of her colonies or by the completeness of her defeat. She rose from it indeed stronger and greater than ever. The next ten years saw a display of industrial activity such as the world had never witnessed before. During the twenty years which followed she wrestled almost single-handed against the energy of the French Revolution, as well as against the colossal force of Napoleonic tyranny, and came out of the one struggle unconquered and out of the other a conqueror. Never had England stood higher among the nations of the Old World than after Waterloo; but she was already conscious that her real greatness lay not in the Old World but in the New. From the moment of the Declaration of Independence it mattered little whether England counted for

less or more with the nations around her. She was no longer a mere rival of Germany or Russia or France. She was from that hour a mother of nations. In America she had begotten a great people, and her emigrant ships were still to carry on the movement of the Teutonic race from which she herself had sprung. Her work was to be colonization. Her settlers were to dispute Africa with the Kaffir and the Hottentot, to wrest New Zealand from the Maori, to sow on the shores of Australia the seeds of great nations. And to these nations she was to give not only her blood and her speech, but the freedom which she had won. It is the thought of this which flings its grandeur around the pettiest details of our story in the past. The history of France has little result beyond France itself. German or Italian history has no direct issue outside the bounds of Germany or Italy. But England is only a small part of the outcome of English history. Its greatest issue lies not within the narrow limits of the mother island, but in the destinies of nations yet to be. The struggles of her patriots, the wisdom of her statesmen, the steady love of liberty and law in her people at large, were shaping in the past of our little island the future of mankind."

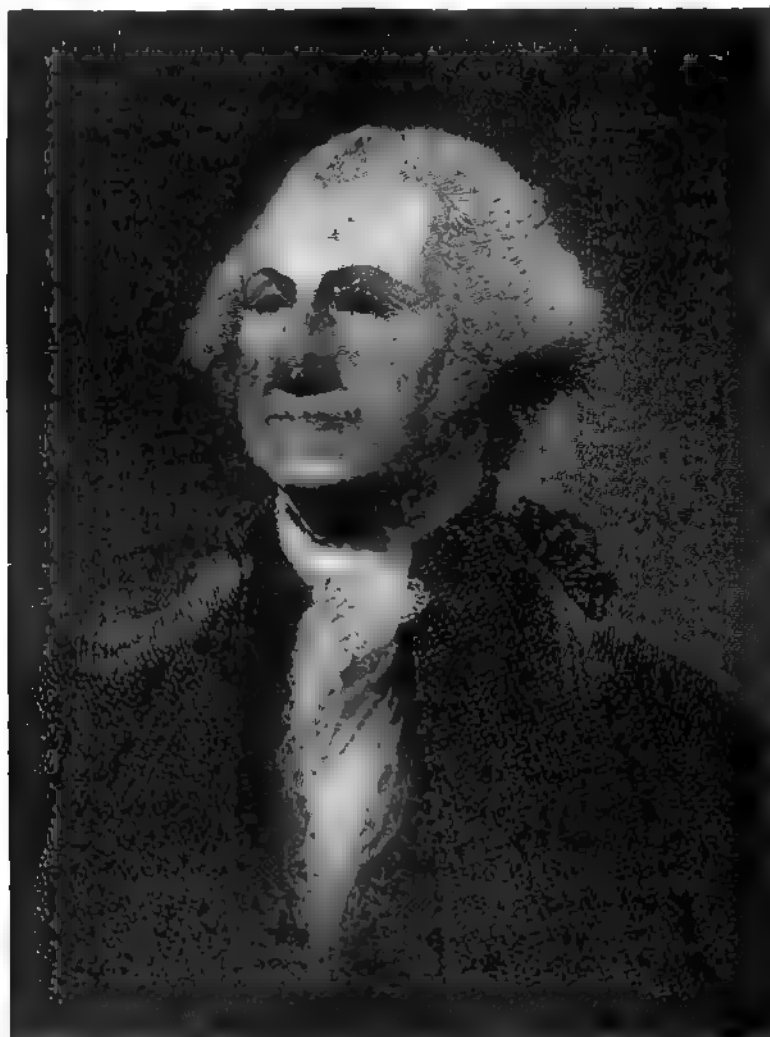
The British evacuated Savannah on the 11th of July, 1782; Charleston on the 14th of December of the same year; and New York on the 25th of November, 1783. The joy of the Americans at the return of peace was mingled with gloomy apprehensions of coming evil, foreshadowed in the murmurings of the unpaid soldiers, the condition of the public finances, and the jealousies of the States. The soldiers had been unpaid for a long time, because the national treasury was empty. Crafty men encouraged the discontent of the army by charging Congress with neglect; and in the spring of 1783 an anonymous address was circulated in Washington's camp at Newburg, on the Hudson, advising the army to take matters into its own hands, and to obtain justice by making a demonstration that should arouse the fears of the American

people and Congress; but Washington's great influence and sagacity induced the officers to desist from their purpose, and thus a threatening cloud was dispelled in a few days.

A cessation of hostilities was proclaimed in Washington's army at Newburg on the

pendent on a ribbon, on the breast of which was a medallion with a device representing Cincinnatus receiving the Roman Senators.

On the 3d of November, 1783, the American army was disbanded; and the American soldiers returned to their homes, to enjoy the freedom which their valor had won, and



WASHINGTON.

[Original painting by Stuart for the Marquis of Lansdowne.]

eighth anniversary of the skirmish at Lexington, April 19, 1783. On June 19, 1783, many of the officers at Newburg met and formed a permanent association known as the *Society of the Cincinnati*, electing Washington the first president of the society, and selecting as their emblem a gold eagle sus-

to receive the grateful benedictions of their countrymen. After an affectionate parting with his officers in New York City, on the 4th of December, Washington proceeded to Annapolis, in Maryland, where the Congress was in session; and on the 23d of December (1783) he resigned into the hands

of that body his commission of commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, in a simple and touching address, to which an equally affecting response was made by the President of the Congress, General Thomas Mifflin of Pennsylvania. Washington then returned to his farm at Mount Vernon, on the banks of the Potomac, carrying with him the esteem and gratitude of his countrymen, and the admiration of the world. Thus Washington, like Cincinnatus, after delivering his country from its enemies, returned to private life.

Says John Richard Green, the English historian, concerning Washington: "No nobler figure ever stood in the forefront of a nation's life. Washington was grave and courteous in address; his manners were simple and unpretending; his silence and the serene calmness of his temper spoke of a perfect self-mastery; but there was little in his outer bearing to reveal the grandeur of soul which lifts his figure, with all the simple majesty of an ancient statue, out of the smaller passions, the meaner impulses of the world around him. What recommended him for command as yet was simply his weight among his fellow-landowners of Virginia, and the experience of war which he had gained by service in Braddock's luckless expedition against Fort Duquesne. It was only as the weary fight went on that the colonists learned little by little the greatness of their leader—his clear judgment, his heroic endurance, his silence under difficulties, his calmness in the hour of danger or defeat, the patience with which he waited, the quickness and hardness with which he struck, the lofty and serene sense of duty that never swerved from its task through resentment or jealousy, that never through war or peace felt the touch of a meaner ambition, that knew no aim save that of guarding the freedom of his fellow-countrymen, and no personal longing save that of returning to his own fireside when their freedom was secured. It was almost unconsciously that men learned to cling to Washington with a trust and

faith such as few other men have won, and to regard him with a reverence which still hushes us in presence of his memory. Even America hardly recognized his real grandeur till death set its seal on 'the man first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen.' Washington, more than any of his fellow-colonists, represented the clinging of the Virginia land-owners to the mother country, and his acceptance of the command proved that even the most moderate among them had no hope now save in arms."

THE WASHINGTON FAMILY.

The Washington family belonged to the gentry of England, and was more than seven centuries old. The founder of the family in England was Thorfin the Dane, Earl of the Orkney Isles, also called Torkill of Richmondshire, England, Baron and Lord of Tanfield, who was one of the Danish Sea-kings who ravaged England for two centuries during the reigns of its Anglo-Saxon kings, and was said to have been descended from the Scandinavian god Odin through the royal line of Denmark in thirty-two generations. Thorfin the Dane was born about A. D. 1010, and settled in Yorkshire, England, about 1030 or 1035, about three decades before the Norman Conquest of England.

The Washington family derives its name from the village of Wassington, near Ravensworth, now called Wharleton, in the parish of Kirkby-Ravensworth, in the North Riding of Yorkshire. As the family multiplied in succeeding generations it spread from Yorkshire into Lancashire, Leicestershire, Northamptonshire, Buckinghamshire, Warwickshire and Kent. The old home of the Washingtons at the village of Sulgrave, in Northamptonshire, England, is still standing; and the house was built by Hon. Laurence Washington, Mayor of Northampton, about A. D. 1564. It is also said that America was discovered by relatives of Thorfin the Dane, the progenitor of the Washington family, about five centuries before Columbus landed on its shores

Colonel Sir Henry Washington fought on the king's side during the civil war between Charles I. and Parliament, leading a storming party at Bristol and defending Worcester against the Parliamentary forces in 1646.

General George Washington was descended from Thorfin the Dane through twenty-three generations, and was the great-

landed gentry of England, so General Washington belonged to the aristocratic landholding class of Virginia, which in its political and social conditions was more like the mother country than any other of the Anglo-American colonies. The landholders were the first of the four classes of Virginia society.

General Washington was educated chiefly



MARTHA WASHINGTON AT THE AGE OF TWENTY-FOUR.

[From a painting by Woolaston.]

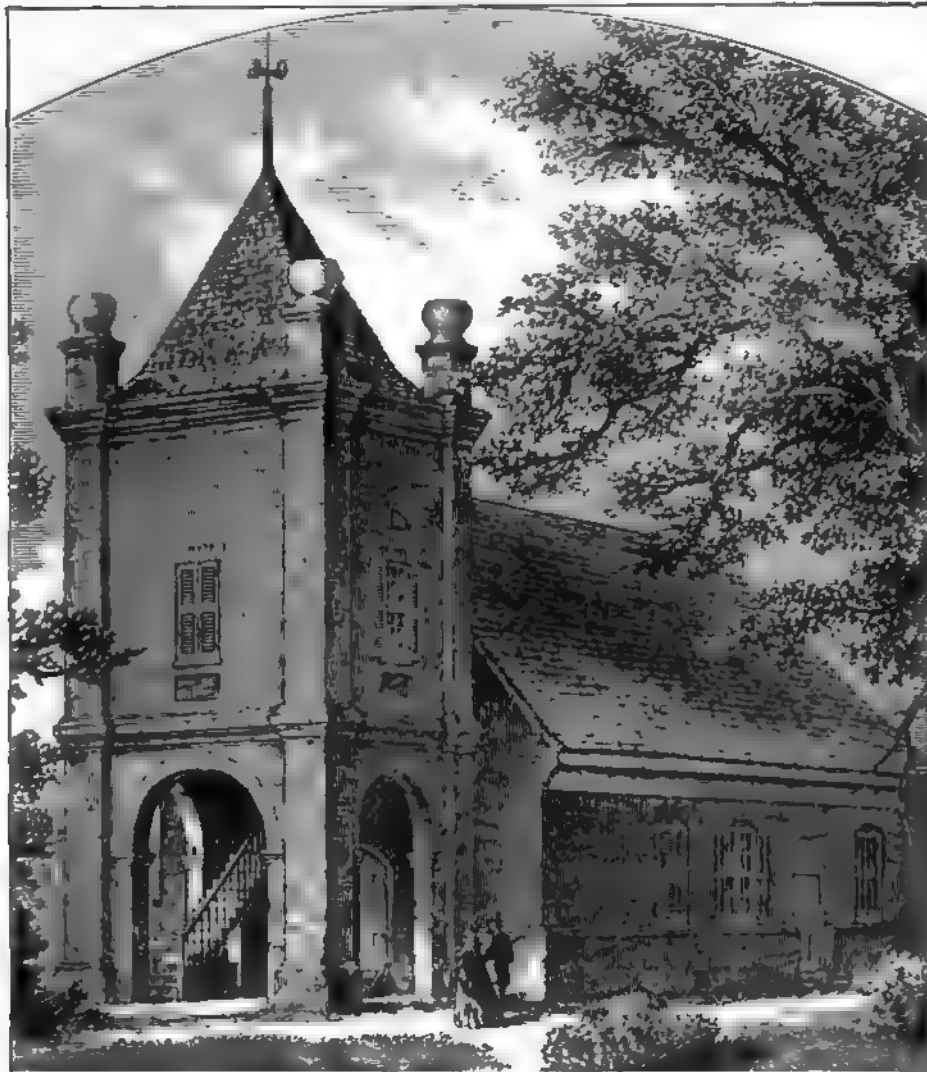
grandson of Colonel John Washington, who, with his brother Laurence Washington, emigrated from Wharton, Lancashire, England, to America in 1659, and settled in Westmoreland County, Virginia, where the illustrious American Revolutionary commander-in-chief was born February 22, 1732.

As his ancestors had belonged to the

by his mother; his father, Augustine Washington, having died when his son was only ten years old. George became a surveyor and was early inured to hardships and filled with a knowledge of the forest and of the Indian character, which became of much service to him. While still a youth he was about to enlist as a midshipman in the Brit-

ish navy, but his mother's opposition caused him to remain at home; and the family estate of Mt. Vernon was named after the British Admiral Vernon, under whom his elder brother, Captain Laurence Washington, had served in the unfortunate expedition against the Spanish town of Cartha-

and he was delegate from Virginia to the First and Second Continental Congresses, being a member of the Second Continental Congress when that body appointed him commander-in-chief of the American armies. At his death he was worth eight hundred thousand dollars, and was in his time



ST. PETER'S CHURCH, WHERE WASHINGTON WAS MARRIED.

[By permission of Magazine of American History.]

gena, in South America, in 1740. George Washington married a widow, Mrs. Martha Custis, and died without leaving any offspring. After his service in the French and Indian War he was for some time a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses;

next to the richest man in the United States.

"Of all the noble families of England that of Washington is the most ancient and one of the most illustrious. Tracing back through the royal line of Denmark to that great hero king Odin, the founder of Scan-

ing among the American people. Thus the atheistical writings of Voltaire, Rousseau and others spread in the United States with alarming rapidity; and there were American writers of infidel works, such as Colonel Ethan Allen of Vermont, whose *Oracles of Reason* had already appeared, and Thomas Paine, who had come to America from England at the beginning of the war and had supported the American cause by such writings as *Common Sense* and the *Crisis*, and who had afterward written his celebrated skeptical work, the *Age of Reason*, whose effects were long felt in the country. Religious institutions suffered much neglect during the war; as churches were often demolished, or converted into barracks; while public worship was frequently suspended. After the war there was a revival of religion, and infidelity began to lose some ground. During this period Methodism was introduced into the United States from England, and increased rapidly, especially in the Middle States, producing beneficial effects upon society.

Education also suffered during the war, along with other kindred interests. The course of instruction was suspended in several colleges. Professor and student turned soldiers. Common schools, which had before been fostered by the state, the church or the family, were neglected during the war, and in many instances were entirely overlooked and allowed to perish. But after the war there was a revival of interest in education, and in a few years several colleges and other institutions of learning were established in various portions of the United States. During this period there was much added to the political and other literature of the English language in the United States.

The writings of American soldiers and statesmen were almost as important as their actions in the field or in the cabinet. There were other writers who were conspicuous solely by their literary efforts. Such was the Englishman Thomas Paine, whose pamphlet called *Common Sense*, which appeared in 1776, as already noticed, had contributed largely to preparing the American

people for independence. His other pamphlets, issued during the next few years of the war under the name of the *Crisis*, were of equal influence on the American cause. John Trumbull of Connecticut wrote a poem called *McFingal*, which was a satire upon his countrymen and their foes. Francis Hopkinson of Philadelphia was the author of various productions in prose and poetry relating to the war, and Philip Freneau of New York wrote popular poems upon the battles of the Revolution. The influence of this literature was felt in spreading the spirit of the camp and of the council around the fireside and within the closet, arousing sympathy, exciting action, and thus contributing vastly to the national redemption. William Billings of Boston was the first of American musical composers, and such was his enthusiasm for his art and for his country that he moved many a spirit by his ardent strains. His melodies were heard on the march and on the battle-field as well as in the choir, and such as his *Independence* and his *Columbia* may be called psalms of the Revolution and the Constitution.

During the war American commerce ceased, but it revived when peace returned. Most of the American shipping was destroyed by the British during the war, or perished by a natural process of decay. The coasts of the United States were so lined with British cruisers that navigation became too hazardous to be pursued to any considerable extent. During the first two years after the return of peace the imports from England alone amounted to thirty million dollars, while the exports of the United States to England were only from eight million to nine million dollars.

At this period arts and manufactures made considerable progress in the United States. As the American people had been cut off by the war from foreign sources they had been obliged to depend upon their own industry and ingenuity to furnish articles required by the struggle and by the usual occupations of life. When peace returned, many branches of manufacture had become so firmly established that they held their

ground, even against the large importations immediately following.

During the war agriculture was greatly interrupted by the withdrawal of laborers to the camp and by the distractions which disturbed all the occupations of society. But within a few years after the return of peace the exports of agricultural products from the United States were again considerable. About the year 1783 attention began to be directed to the culture of cotton in the Southern States, and that agricultural product became a staple in that portion of the country. Agricultural societies began to be formed in the United States about the same time.

Slavery, so directly in opposition to the rights of man for which the War of Independence had been waged, and in violation of the principles enunciated in the Declaration of Independence, by which the revolt had been justified to mankind, remained undisturbed in all the States until near the end of the war; but in the meantime all the States except South Carolina and Georgia had prohibited the further importation of slaves, while the New England States and Pennsylvania had taken measures for the final abolition of slavery within their respective borders, and their example was followed not many years afterward by New York and New Jersey. The wisest and best men of the time, both in the North and in the South, looked forward with confidence and hope to the speedy extinction of an institution so repugnant to the principles of Christian civilization and so fraught with danger to society, religion and the state; but, unfortunately, slavery became firmly established in the States south of Mason's and Dixon's Line and the Ohio river.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

When the War of American Independence was ended, and external dangers had passed away, the Americans perceived that the Articles of Confederation allowed the exercise of too much sovereign and independent power by the States, and too little by the Congress, thus preventing a

Union of States sufficiently strong to entitle the American people to the character or rank of a nation. The Congress had no power to dispose of the immense foreign and domestic debt with which the country was burdened; and the States, all financially exhausted by the war, found it extremely difficult to provide means for the payment of the soldiers of the Revolution.

So weak was the general government, and so disordered were the national finances, that Robert Morris of Philadelphia, the Superintendent of Finance, by whose personal efforts and financial aid the United States had been able to carry on the struggle with Great Britain during the last years of the war, resigned in despair after a year of peace. His creation of the *Bank of North America* at Philadelphia in 1781 was recommended by Congress to the States, with the request that branches should be established; but all in vain. Robert Morris, who was a wealthy Philadelphia merchant, afterward lost his immense fortune by land speculations in Western New York, and died a poor man in 1806.

In 1783 Congress renewed its petition to the States for power to impose a duty on imports for a limited period. After long delay Congress made a fresh appeal to the States with really piteous representations of the national insolvency. New York refused to comply upon the terms proposed, and Congress was again humiliated, A. D. 1786. Congress also asked the States for authority over the foreign commerce of the country. Such was the urgency that Congress appointed a commission to negotiate treaties with the European powers, A. D. 1784; but the States denied the supplications of Congress on this point, although a treaty was made with Prussia in 1785, which contained sufficient substance for a score of old treaties in prohibiting privateering and sustaining the liberty of neutral commerce in case of war.

The States were absorbed in their own troubles. The debts of the Confederation were a heavy burden upon them, as well as their own State debts. Their citizens were

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Under so liberal an organization, surveys, sales and settlements quickly followed in the North-west Territory. A colony from New England under General Rufus Putnam made the first settlement within that part of the North-west Territory now forming the State of Ohio, at Marietta, on the Ohio river, in 1788. Cincinnati was founded a few years later, and in 1796 General

Moses Cleveland of Connecticut founded the beautiful city on Lake Erie bearing his name.

In 1786 the Northern and Central States, sustained by General Washington, were willing to surrender the navigation of the Mississippi to Spain, which then owned all the region west of that great river, in return for a treaty of commerce with that power. In 1787 Jefferson, then United States Minister to France, wrote: "The act which abandons the navigation of the Mississippi is an act of separation between the eastern and western country."

The peaceful relations of the United States and Great Britain were disturbed. The peace of 1783 required the surrender of the Western military posts by Great Britain, but the United States was also required by that treaty to provide for the immense debts due to British merchants. This obligation Congress was unable to fulfill, and the States were unwilling. Five States undertook to prevent the collection of British debts. Therefore, when John Adams, the first United States Minister to Great Britain, entered into a negotiation with that power for the recovery of the Western military posts still in British hands, the British government under the younger William Pitt at once demanded that the American part of the treaty should also be fulfilled, A. D. 1786. Congress vainly addressed a remonstrance to the States concerning their infraction of the treaty of 1783, but all to no purpose, A. D. 1787.

Lafayette wrote: "The consideration felt for America by Europe is diminishing to a degree truly painful; and what has been gained by the Revolution is in danger of being lost little by little, at least during an interval of trial to all the friends of the nation." Washington wrote: "I am mortified beyond expression when I view the clouds that have spread over the brightest morn that ever dawned upon any country."

But the old foundations stood secure amid this tottering of the national system. The laws that had been laid deep in the past, the social and political institutions that had been

reared above them, remained to support the uncertainties of the time. Every strong principle of the mother country, every broad reform of the colonies, contributed to the strength and development of the struggling nation.

But the States, in forming and reforming their constitutions, established many a new principle previously undeveloped. Pennsylvania voted an indemnity to the proprietary family whose dominion she had renounced—a recognition of rights belonging to rulers never before made by subjects in a successful revolution. The colonies, led by Georgia, gradually prohibited the claim of the eldest son to a double share of his father's property and to the prerogatives of primogeniture. New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Delaware and South Carolina extended the suffrage from holders of real or personal property to all tax-paying freemen; and North Carolina partially did the same. Personal liberty was extended and protected. The class of indentured servants diminished; and, as we have seen, slavery was altogether abolished in the States north of Mason's and Dixon's Line, while the slave trade was forbidden by all the States except South Carolina and Georgia. Societies were formed in many localities to quicken the action of the authorities. In making such exertions and upholding such principles, the young nation was proving its title to independence. The majority of the State constitutions allowed full religious liberty, even conservative Rhode Island repealing the prohibitory statute against Roman Catholics, A. D. 1784. A few restrictions remained in the Puritan States, where payment of church taxes and the attendance upon services in some church or other were enforced, and where particular forms of religious faith were required from the magistrates, if not from the citizens; some of the States excluding Roman Catholics from office.

The dangers to which the young nation was exposed by its loose system of government—this mere league of States, as formed by the Articles of Confederation—induced

thoughtful men to devise a more consolidated system. As early as 1780 the youthful Alexander Hamilton of New York conceived the idea of a convention of all the States to frame a national constitution. Other men advocated the same measure publicly or privately. The New York Legislature supported it in 1782, and the Massachusetts Legislature supported it in 1785.

In 1785 commissioners from Maryland and Virginia met at Alexandria, Virginia, for the purpose of regulating the navigation of the Chesapeake and the Potomac. They also met at Mount Vernon. One of the commissioners from Virginia was James Madison, who suggested that commissioners with additional powers be appointed, with the assent of Congress, to act in instituting a tariff for Maryland and Virginia. The commission recommended Madison's plan, and the Virginia Legislature appointed commissioners to meet others from all the States and "to take into consideration the trade of the United States."

In accordance with Virginia's recommendation, a convention of delegates from five States assembled at Annapolis, in Maryland, in September, 1786, to establish a better system of commercial regulations; but they did more. At the proposal of Alexander Hamilton, one of the delegates from New York, the Annapolis Convention recommended a national convention to meet at Philadelphia the next May, "to take into consideration the situation of the United States, to devise such further provisions as shall appear necessary to render the constitution of the federal government adequate to the exigencies of the Union, and to report such an act for that purpose to the United States in Congress assembled, as, when agreed to by them, and afterwards confirmed by the Legislature of every State, will effectually provide for the same."

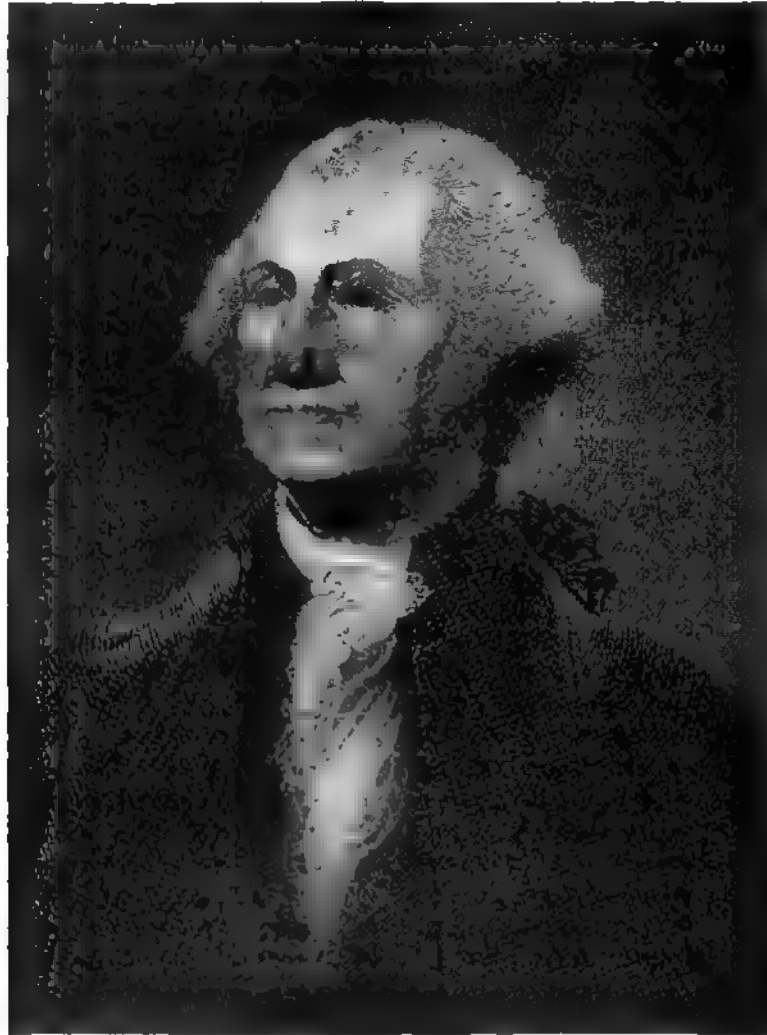
Virginia was the first State to act upon the proposal of the Annapolis Convention. The Legislature of that great State issued a call to her sister States to join with her in forming a more perfect union, and appointed

people and Congress; but Washington's great influence and sagacity induced the officers to desist from their purpose, and thus a threatening cloud was dispelled in a few days.

A cessation of hostilities was proclaimed in Washington's army at Newburg on the

pendent on a ribbon, on the breast of which was a medallion with a device representing Cincinnatus receiving the Roman Senators.

On the 3d of November, 1783, the American army was disbanded; and the American soldiers returned to their homes, to enjoy the freedom which their valor had won, and



WASHINGTON.

(Original painting by Stuart for the Marquis of Lansdowne.)

eighth anniversary of the skirmish at Lexington, April 19, 1783. On June 19, 1783, many of the officers at Newburg met and formed a permanent association known as the *Society of the Cincinnati*, electing Washington the first president of the society, and selecting as their emblem a gold eagle sus-

to receive the grateful benedictions of their countrymen. After an affectionate parting with his officers in New York City, on the 4th of December, Washington proceeded to Annapolis, in Maryland, where the Congress was in session; and on the 23d of December (1783) he resigned into the hands

of that body his commission of commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, in a simple and touching address, to which an equally affecting response was made by the President of the Congress, General Thomas Mifflin of Pennsylvania. Washington then returned to his farm at Mount Vernon, on the banks of the Potomac, carrying with him the esteem and gratitude of his countrymen, and the admiration of the world. Thus Washington, like Cincinnatus, after delivering his country from its enemies, returned to private life.

Says John Richard Green, the English historian, concerning Washington: "No nobler figure ever stood in the forefront of a nation's life. Washington was grave and courteous in address; his manners were simple and unpretending; his silence and the serene calmness of his temper spoke of a perfect self-mastery; but there was little in his outer bearing to reveal the grandeur of soul which lifts his figure, with all the simple majesty of an ancient statue, out of the smaller passions, the meaner impulses of the world around him. What recommended him for command as yet was simply his weight among his fellow-landowners of Virginia, and the experience of war which he had gained by service in Braddock's luckless expedition against Fort Duquesne. It was only as the weary fight went on that the colonists learned little by little the greatness of their leader—his clear judgment, his heroic endurance, his silence under difficulties, his calmness in the hour of danger or defeat, the patience with which he waited, the quickness and hardness with which he struck, the lofty and serene sense of duty that never swerved from its task through resentment or jealousy, that never through war or peace felt the touch of a meaner ambition, that knew no aim save that of guarding the freedom of his fellow-countrymen, and no personal longing save that of returning to his own fireside when their freedom was secured. It was almost unconsciously that men learned to cling to Washington with a trust and

faith such as few other men have won, and to regard him with a reverence which still hushes us in presence of his memory. Even America hardly recognized his real grandeur till death set its seal on 'the man first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen.' Washington, more than any of his fellow-colonists, represented the clinging of the Virginia land-owners to the mother country, and his acceptance of the command proved that even the most moderate among them had no hope now save in arms."

THE WASHINGTON FAMILY.

The Washington family belonged to the gentry of England, and was more than seven centuries old. The founder of the family in England was Thorfin the Dane, Earl of the Orkney Isles, also called Torkill of Richmondshire, England, Baron and Lord of Tanfield, who was one of the Danish Sea-kings who ravaged England for two centuries during the reigns of its Anglo-Saxon kings, and was said to have been descended from the Scandinavian god Odin through the royal line of Denmark in thirty-two generations. Thorfin the Dane was born about A. D. 1010, and settled in Yorkshire, England, about 1030 or 1035, about three decades before the Norman Conquest of England.

The Washington family derives its name from the village of Wassington, near Ravensworth, now called Wharleton, in the parish of Kirkby-Ravensworth, in the North Riding of Yorkshire. As the family multiplied in succeeding generations it spread from Yorkshire into Lancashire, Leicestershire, Northamptonshire, Buckinghamshire, Warwickshire and Kent. The old home of the Washingtons at the village of Sulgrave, in Northamptonshire, England, is still standing; and the house was built by Hon. Laurence Washington, Mayor of Northampton, about A. D. 1564. It is also said that America was discovered by relatives of Thorfin the Dane, the progenitor of the Washington family, about five centuries before Columbus landed on its shores.

Colonel Sir Henry Washington fought on the king's side during the civil war between Charles I. and Parliament, leading a storming party at Bristol and defending Worcester against the Parliamentary forces in 1646.

General George Washington was descended from Thorfin the Dane through twenty-three generations, and was the great-

landed gentry of England, so General Washington belonged to the aristocratic landholding class of Virginia, which in its political and social conditions was more like the mother country than any other of the Anglo-American colonies. The landholders were the first of the four classes of Virginia society.

General Washington was educated chiefly



MARTHA WASHINGTON AT THE AGE OF TWENTY-FOUR.
[From a painting by Woolaston.]

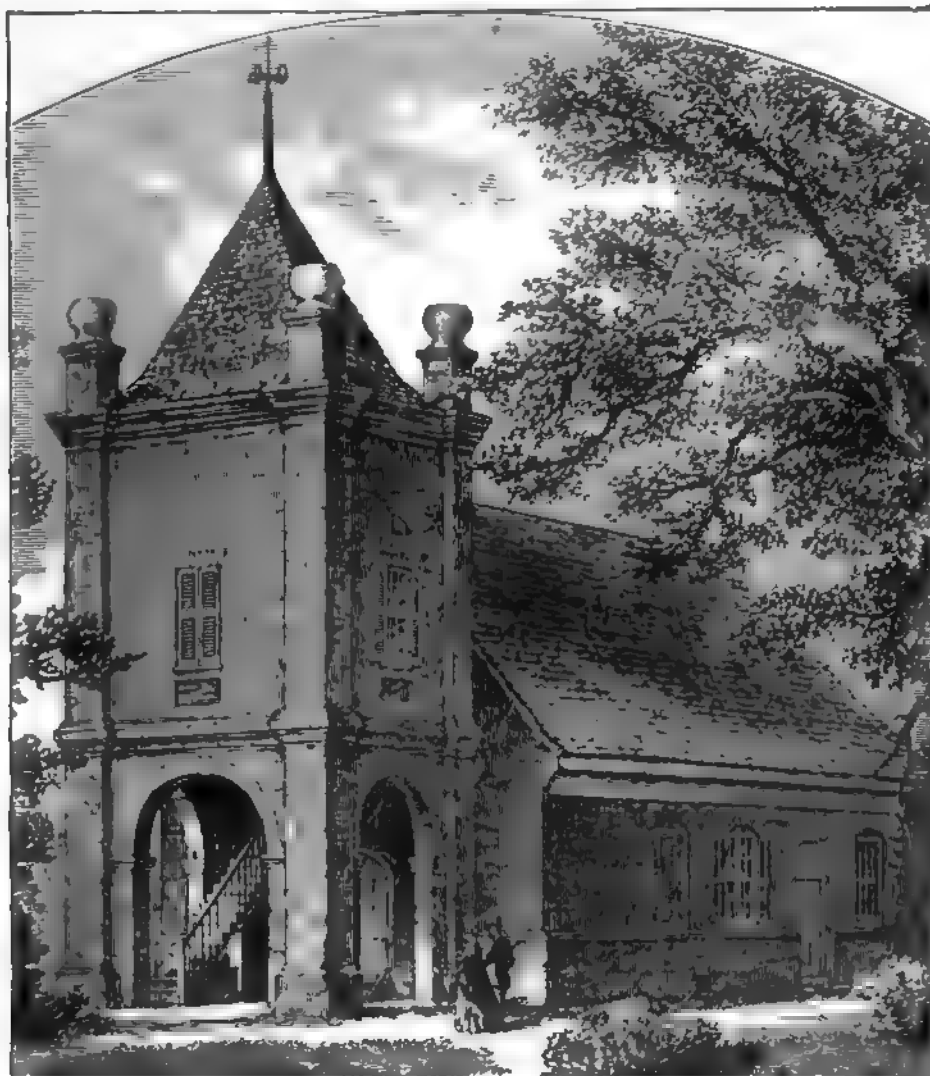
grandson of Colonel John Washington, who, with his brother Laurence Washington, emigrated from Wharton, Lancashire, England, to America in 1659, and settled in Westmoreland County, Virginia, where the illustrious American Revolutionary commander-in-chief was born February 22, 1732.

As his ancestors had belonged to the

by his mother; his father, Augustine Washington, having died when his son was only ten years old. George became a surveyor and was early inured to hardships and filled with a knowledge of the forest and of the Indian character, which became of much service to him. While still a youth he was about to enlist as a midshipman in the Brit-

ish navy, but his mother's opposition caused him to remain at home; and the family estate of Mt. Vernon was named after the British Admiral Vernon, under whom his elder brother, Captain Laurence Washington, had served in the unfortunate expedition against the Spanish town of Cartha-

and he was delegate from Virginia to the First and Second Continental Congresses, being a member of the Second Continental Congress when that body appointed him commander-in-chief of the American armies. At his death he was worth eight hundred thousand dollars, and was in his time



ST. PETER'S CHURCH, WHERE WASHINGTON WAS MARRIED

(By permission of Magazine of American History.)

gena, in South America, in 1740. George Washington married a widow, Mrs. Martha Custis, and died without leaving any offspring. After his service in the French and Indian War he was for some time a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses;

next to the richest man in the United States.

"Of all the noble families of England that of Washington is the most ancient and one of the most illustrious. Tracing back through the royal line of Denmark to that great hero king Odin, the founder of Scan-

dinavia, B. C. 70, whose life and character were so great and glorious that his people deified himself and family, and thus established a Scandinavian mythology of equal magnitude and grandeur with that of ancient Greece and Egypt, and of such minuteness in detail as to have confused some historians who were unable to separate the real from the mythological history. The remarkable resemblance of character between Odin and his descendant Washington, separated by a period of eighteen centuries, is so great as to excite the profound and devout astonishment of the genealogical student—one the founder of the most eminent race of kings and conquerors, and the other of the grand republic of America."

CONDITION OF THE UNITED STATES.

At the close of the War of the American Revolution most of the thirteen original States had assumed their present limits. New Hampshire, for a long time claiming jurisdiction over Vermont, had yielded her claim to New York, and had taken the Connecticut river as her western boundary. Massachusetts still exercised jurisdiction over Maine, but had arranged her western boundary with New York as at present, accepting the proprietorship of large tracts of land in Western New York in satisfaction of the claim of her charter to territory farther west. Rhode Island and Connecticut had boundaries essentially the same as at present; Connecticut retaining, of all her claims under her charter, only a part of her territory south of Lake Erie, known as the Connecticut Reserve, which now forms the north-eastern portion of the State of Ohio. New York claimed Vermont with the rest of her present territory. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland had their present limits. Virginia included Kentucky, and North Carolina included Tennessee. South Carolina had her present limits, and Georgia claimed all of the present Alabama and Mississippi that then belonged to the United States.

There had been little increase in the population of the United States during the War

of the American Revolution; as immigration almost ceased, and as many men had fallen in battle, while many Tories left the country, some of them founding the province of Canada West, now Ontario.

When the Revolution had commenced, the Americans were chiefly farmers, merchants, mechanics and fishermen, who were engaged in the ordinary duties of their respective occupations, and were sober, honest and industrious. But when the struggle for independence had begun, new fields for exertion were opened, and a great change suddenly came about in the American people. Many who had previously been known only in the humble sphere of peaceful callings soon exhibited talents for war or statesmanship.

The war also did much to extinguish local peculiarities and prejudices, but also introduced a greater laxity of manners and morals. An army always carries deep vices in its train, and communicates its corruption to society. The failure of the public credit through the depreciation of the Continental Money so far disabled individuals to fulfill their private engagements that the breach of such engagements became very general, and was at length not considered dishonorable. Thus that high sense of integrity which had previously existed was exchanged for more loose and slippery notions of honor and honesty, but after the return of peace things returned somewhat to their former condition. Those sober habits for which the Americans had been formerly distinguished began to return. Business assumed a more regular and equitable character, and the tumultuous passions excited by the war subsided.

The frequent intercourse between different portions of the country promoted by the war had softened sectarian prejudices, and had almost extinguished the spirit of intolerance; but the war had also introduced irreligion and infidelity. The atheistical philosophy which had spread over France was communicated to the American army by the French allies, thus tending to produce a serious decline in the tone of religious feel-

ing among the American people. Thus the atheistical writings of Voltaire, Rousseau and others spread in the United States with alarming rapidity; and there were American writers of infidel works, such as Colonel Ethan Allen of Vermont, whose *Oracles of Reason* had already appeared, and Thomas Paine, who had come to America from England at the beginning of the war and had supported the American cause by such writings as *Common Sense* and the *Crisis*, and who had afterward written his celebrated skeptical work, the *Age of Reason*, whose effects were long felt in the country. Religious institutions suffered much neglect during the war; as churches were often demolished, or converted into barracks; while public worship was frequently suspended. After the war there was a revival of religion, and infidelity began to lose some ground. During this period Methodism was introduced into the United States from England, and increased rapidly, especially in the Middle States, producing beneficial effects upon society.

Education also suffered during the war, along with other kindred interests. The course of instruction was suspended in several colleges. Professor and student turned soldiers. Common schools, which had before been fostered by the state, the church or the family, were neglected during the war, and in many instances were entirely overlooked and allowed to perish. But after the war there was a revival of interest in education, and in a few years several colleges and other institutions of learning were established in various portions of the United States. During this period there was much added to the political and other literature of the English language in the United States.

The writings of American soldiers and statesmen were almost as important as their actions in the field or in the cabinet. There were other writers who were conspicuous solely by their literary efforts. Such was the Englishman Thomas Paine, whose pamphlet called *Common Sense*, which appeared in 1776, as already noticed, had contributed largely to preparing the American

people for independence. His other pamphlets, issued during the next few years of the war under the name of the *Crisis*, were of equal influence on the American cause. John Trumbull of Connecticut wrote a poem called *McFingal*, which was a satire upon his countrymen and their foes. Francis Hopkinson of Philadelphia was the author of various productions in prose and poetry relating to the war, and Philip Freneau of New York wrote popular poems upon the battles of the Revolution. The influence of this literature was felt in spreading the spirit of the camp and of the council around the fireside and within the closet, arousing sympathy, exciting action, and thus contributing vastly to the national redemption. William Billings of Boston was the first of American musical composers, and such was his enthusiasm for his art and for his country that he moved many a spirit by his ardent strains. His melodies were heard on the march and on the battle-field as well as in the choir, and such as his *Independence* and his *Columbia* may be called psalms of the Revolution and the Constitution.

During the war American commerce ceased, but it revived when peace returned. Most of the American shipping was destroyed by the British during the war, or perished by a natural process of decay. The coasts of the United States were so lined with British cruisers that navigation became too hazardous to be pursued to any considerable extent. During the first two years after the return of peace the imports from England alone amounted to thirty million dollars, while the exports of the United States to England were only from eight million to nine million dollars.

At this period arts and manufactures made considerable progress in the United States. As the American people had been cut off by the war from foreign sources they had been obliged to depend upon their own industry and ingenuity to furnish articles required by the struggle and by the usual occupations of life. When peace returned, many branches of manufacture had become so firmly established that they held their

ground, even against the large importations immediately following.

During the war agriculture was greatly interrupted by the withdrawal of laborers to the camp and by the distractions which disturbed all the occupations of society. But within a few years after the return of peace the exports of agricultural products from the United States were again considerable. About the year 1783 attention began to be directed to the culture of cotton in the Southern States, and that agricultural product became a staple in that portion of the country. Agricultural societies began to be formed in the United States about the same time.

Slavery, so directly in opposition to the rights of man for which the War of Independence had been waged, and in violation of the principles enunciated in the Declaration of Independence, by which the revolt had been justified to mankind, remained undisturbed in all the States until near the end of the war; but in the meantime all the States except South Carolina and Georgia had prohibited the further importation of slaves, while the New England States and Pennsylvania had taken measures for the final abolition of slavery within their respective borders, and their example was followed not many years afterward by New York and New Jersey. The wisest and best men of the time, both in the North and in the South, looked forward with confidence and hope to the speedy extinction of an institution so repugnant to the principles of Christian civilization and so fraught with danger to society, religion and the state; but, unfortunately, slavery became firmly established in the States south of Mason's and Dixon's Line and the Ohio river.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

When the War of American Independence was ended, and external dangers had passed away, the Americans perceived that the Articles of Confederation allowed the exercise of too much sovereign and independent power by the States, and too little by the Congress, thus preventing a

Union of States sufficiently strong to entitle the American people to the character or rank of a nation. The Congress had no power to dispose of the immense foreign and domestic debt with which the country was burdened; and the States, all financially exhausted by the war, found it extremely difficult to provide means for the payment of the soldiers of the Revolution.

So weak was the general government, and so disordered were the national finances, that Robert Morris of Philadelphia, the Superintendent of Finance, by whose personal efforts and financial aid the United States had been able to carry on the struggle with Great Britain during the last years of the war, resigned in despair after a year of peace. His creation of the *Bank of North America* at Philadelphia in 1781 was recommended by Congress to the States, with the request that branches should be established; but all in vain. Robert Morris, who was a wealthy Philadelphia merchant, afterward lost his immense fortune by land speculations in Western New York, and died a poor man in 1806.

In 1783 Congress renewed its petition to the States for power to impose a duty on imports for a limited period. After long delay Congress made a fresh appeal to the States with really piteous representations of the national insolvency. New York refused to comply upon the terms proposed, and Congress was again humiliated, A. D. 1786. Congress also asked the States for authority over the foreign commerce of the country. Such was the urgency that Congress appointed a commission to negotiate treaties with the European powers, A. D. 1784; but the States denied the supplications of Congress on this point, although a treaty was made with Prussia in 1785, which contained sufficient substance for a score of old treaties in prohibiting privateering and sustaining the liberty of neutral commerce in case of war.

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Some of the States followed the advice of Congress to bear their proportions of the public debt and to uphold their credit. This led to an outbreak in Massachusetts in the winter of 1786-'87, known as *Shays's Insurrection*, so called from its leader, Daniel Shays, formerly a captain in the American army. In the western counties of that State the courts of law were closed by armed mobs for the purpose of preventing the collection of debts and taxes. So general was the sympathy with the insurgents in Massachusetts and adjoining States that twelve or fifteen thousand men were supposed to be ready to join them. Almost two thousand men were in arms at the beginning of 1787. There was intense horror in the rest of the country. Congress ordered troops to be raised; but, as it had no power to interfere with the States, it set up the pretext of Indian hostilities. Governor James Bowdoin of Massachusetts sent about four thousand militia under General Benjamin Lincoln against the insurgents under Daniel Shays. The insurgents had attacked the arsenal at Springfield, but were driven back; whereupon they retreated to Petersham, where they were totally routed and dispersed. Fourteen of the ringleaders were convicted of treason and condemned to death, but all were finally pardoned. The insurrection lasted from August, 1786, to February, 1787.

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Under so liberal an organization, surveys, sales and settlements quickly followed in the North-west Territory. A colony from New England under General Rufus Putnam made the first settlement within that part of the North-west Territory now forming the State of Ohio, at Marietta, on the Ohio river, in 1788. Cincinnati was founded a few years later, and in 1796 General

Moses Cleveland of Connecticut founded the beautiful city on Lake Erie bearing his name.

In 1786 the Northern and Central States, sustained by General Washington, were willing to surrender the navigation of the Mississippi to Spain, which then owned all the region west of that great river, in return for a treaty of commerce with that power. In 1787 Jefferson, then United States Minister to France, wrote: "The act which abandons the navigation of the Mississippi is an act of separation between the eastern and western country."

The peaceful relations of the United States and Great Britain were disturbed. The peace of 1783 required the surrender of the Western military posts by Great Britain, but the United States was also required by that treaty to provide for the immense debts due to British merchants. This obligation Congress was unable to fulfill, and the States were unwilling. Five States undertook to prevent the collection of British debts. Therefore, when John Adams, the first United States Minister to Great Britain, entered into a negotiation with that power for the recovery of the Western military posts still in British hands, the British government under the younger William Pitt at once demanded that the American part of the treaty should also be fulfilled, A. D. 1786. Congress vainly addressed a remonstrance to the States concerning their infraction of the treaty of 1783, but all to no purpose, A. D. 1787.

Lafayette wrote: "The consideration felt for America by Europe is diminishing to a degree truly painful; and what has been gained by the Revolution is in danger of being lost little by little, at least during an interval of trial to all the friends of the nation." Washington wrote: "I am mortified beyond expression when I view the clouds that have spread over the brightest morn that ever dawned upon any country."

But the old foundations stood secure amid this tottering of the national system. The laws that had been laid deep in the past, the social and political institutions that had been

reared above them, remained to support the uncertainties of the time. Every strong principle of the mother country, every broad reform of the colonies, contributed to the strength and development of the struggling nation.

But the States, in forming and reforming their constitutions, established many a new principle previously undeveloped. Pennsylvania voted an indemnity to the proprietary family whose dominion she had renounced—a recognition of rights belonging to rulers never before made by subjects in a successful revolution. The colonies, led by Georgia, gradually prohibited the claim of the eldest son to a double share of his father's property and to the prerogatives of primogeniture. New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Delaware and South Carolina extended the suffrage from holders of real or personal property to all tax-paying freemen; and North Carolina partially did the same. Personal liberty was extended and protected. The class of indentured servants diminished; and, as we have seen, slavery was altogether abolished in the States north of Mason's and Dixon's Line, while the slave trade was forbidden by all the States except South Carolina and Georgia. Societies were formed in many localities to quicken the action of the authorities. In making such exertions and upholding such principles, the young nation was proving its title to independence. The majority of the State constitutions allowed full religious liberty, even conservative Rhode Island repealing the prohibitory statute against Roman Catholics, A. D. 1784. A few restrictions remained in the Puritan States, where payment of church taxes and the attendance upon services in some church or other were enforced, and where particular forms of religious faith were required from the magistrates, if not from the citizens; some of the States excluding Roman Catholics from office.

The dangers to which the young nation was exposed by its loose system of government—this mere league of States, as formed by the Articles of Confederation—induced

thoughtful men to devise a more consolidated system. As early as 1780 the youthful Alexander Hamilton of New York conceived the idea of a convention of all the States to frame a national constitution. Other men advocated the same measure publicly or privately. The New York Legislature supported it in 1782, and the Massachusetts Legislature supported it in 1785.

In 1785 commissioners from Maryland and Virginia met at Alexandria, Virginia, for the purpose of regulating the navigation of the Chesapeake and the Potomac. They also met at Mount Vernon. One of the commissioners from Virginia was James Madison, who suggested that commissioners with additional powers be appointed, with the assent of Congress, to act in instituting a tariff for Maryland and Virginia. The commission recommended Madison's plan, and the Virginia Legislature appointed commissioners to meet others from all the States and "to take into consideration the trade of the United States."

In accordance with Virginia's recommendation, a convention of delegates from five States assembled at Annapolis, in Maryland, in September, 1786, to establish a better system of commercial regulations; but they did more. At the proposal of Alexander Hamilton, one of the delegates from New York, the Annapolis Convention recommended a national convention to meet at Philadelphia the next May, "to take into consideration the situation of the United States, to devise such further provisions as shall appear necessary to render the constitution of the federal government adequate to the exigencies of the Union, and to report such an act for that purpose to the United States in Congress assembled, as, when agreed to by them, and afterwards confirmed by the Legislature of every State, will effectually provide for the same."

Virginia was the first State to act upon the proposal of the Annapolis Convention. The Legislature of that great State issued a call to her sister States to join with her in forming a more perfect union, and appointed

delegates to join with those of the other States "in devising and discussing all such alterations and provisions as may be necessary to render the federal constitution adequate to the exigencies of the Union."

Virginia's example was promptly followed by New Jersey, Pennsylvania, North Carolina and Delaware. In February, 1787, Congress, acting independently of this movement of the States, summoned a convention of all the States "for the sole and express purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation." All the States except Rhode Island appointed delegates. Some of these delegates were instructed to support the liberal views of Virginia to form a new constitution. Others were instructed to act on the narrower suggestion of Congress. Delaware positively required her delegates to maintain the right of that small State to an equal vote with each of the other States in any government that might be framed.

The convention assembled in the State House, in Philadelphia, in May, 1787. Thus the same historic hall in which the Declaration of Independence had been adopted was chosen for the sessions of the Constitutional Convention. At the appointed day only Virginia and Pennsylvania were represented in the Convention, May 14, 1787. By the 25th (May, 1787) only seven States were represented, and these opened the Convention and elected Washington president of the assemblage. The Convention gradually filled up with delegates from all the States but Rhode Island, but those from New Hampshire did not arrive until July 23d.

In that Constitutional Convention the interests of classes and of sections, and the prejudices of narrow politicians and of selfish men, obtruded themselves; and many of the members were unequal to the national duties of the Convention. But some of the greatest patriots and ablest men of the country were also there. Among the prominent names of the Convention were Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts, Roger Sherman and Oliver Ellsworth of Connecticut, Alexander Hamilton of New York, Jona-

than Dayton and William Paterson of New Jersey, Dr. Benjamin Franklin, General Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris and Gouverneur Morris of Pennsylvania, John Dickinson of Delaware, Luther Martin of Maryland, General George Washington, Governor Edmund Randolph and James Madison of Virginia, and John Rutledge, Charles Pinckney and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney of South Carolina. There were various members of the Stamp Act Congress, of the Continental Congress that declared the independence of the United States, and of the various Congresses under the Articles of Confederation. Among the signers of the Declaration of Independence were Elbridge Gerry, Roger Sherman, Benjamin Franklin and Robert Morris.

The rules of the Convention ordered secrecy of debate and the right of each State to an equal vote. Edmund Randolph of Virginia opened the deliberations on May 29th by offering a series of resolutions proposing a national legislature of two branches, a national executive, and a national judiciary of supreme and inferior tribunals. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney of South Carolina offered a plan of government based on the same principle as Governor Randolph's, but developed with greater detail. Both plans were referred to a committee of the whole, but Randolph's plan occupied the debate. A fortnight later the committee reported in favor of Randolph's plan. William Paterson of New Jersey then proposed a plan for a government of more limited powers. Randolph's and Paterson's plans were both referred to a committee of the whole.

Alexander Hamilton of New York, who had no faith in the people, and who was an avowed monarchist, proposed a plan of his own. His belief in monarchy and his lack of faith in popular government were afterward expressed thus: "There is no stability in any government but monarchy." His partiality for a privileged aristocracy was well shown in such expressions as these in a speech in the Convention: "The British Constitution is the best model that the world has ever produced. * * * Give the rich

and well-born a permanent share in the government. You can not have a good executive on the democratic plan." Hamilton's plan proposed a national government, of which the executive and the higher branch of the legislature, as well as the judiciary, should all be elected to serve during good

whether Randolph's or Paterson's plan should be adopted.

In the Constitutional Convention, as in the Annapolis Convention, a difference of opinion was clearly evident between the advocates of a republic and those of a monarchy; but, as the friends of republican



DR. BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

behavior or life. Hamilton confessed that his plan was "very-remote from the idea of the people." He looked upon popular government as the rule of the mob. His proposal was not considered by the Convention, which was divided on the question as to

government were largely in the majority, the monarchical party confined their efforts to obstruction merely, and to delay, in everything proposed. The monarchists under their great leader, Alexander Hamilton, the ablest man in the Convention,

hoped that if nothing was done and all things should go from bad to worse, a kingly government might be usurped, and submitted to by the people, as better than anarchy and civil and foreign wars, which would be the certain consequences of the existing want of a general government. It was the effect of their maneuvers before the Constitutional Convention which resulted in the measure of calling that assemblage. By preventing a government of concord, which they foresaw would be republican, the monarchists endeavored to force their way through anarchy to monarchy. But the great majority of the Convention were too thoroughly republican to be baffled and misled by the maneuvers of the monarchists.

Hamilton proposed a form of government which would have been practically a compromise between royalty and republicanism. His plan was to have the executive and one branch of the legislative body to remain in power during life or good behavior, and to have the governors of the States to be appointed by these two permanent national departments. When this plan was rejected by the Convention, Hamilton left in anger, and did not return until near its close. These secret and avowed opinions and efforts of the advocates of monarchy had caused the great jealousy through the States which developed into the strong suspicion of the designs of the Constitutional Convention—a jealousy which finally manifested itself in a general determination to establish certain Amendments of the Constitution as safeguards against a monarchical or consolidated government.

There was a difference of opinion in the Convention as to its powers. Some of the members contended that the Convention could do no more than revise the Articles of Confederation; and these favored Mr. Paterson's plan, and were called the federal party. The members opposed to this plan maintained that the necessity of a national government was sufficient to authorize the Convention to frame one, even if the power had not been expressly delegated to it. These members, called the national party,

urged their view the more, as the Convention would not create the new government, but simply recommended it to the nation. The national party favored Governor Randolph's plan. As the federal or the national party prevailed, so followed the fate of Paterson's and Randolph's plans, and even of the Constitution and the nation. The turning point of the Convention was therefore when the committee of the whole again reported in favor of Randolph's plan. The labors of construction and of detail were all to be gone through. But the one guiding and assuring principle of a national system was gained.

Parties in the Convention were very distinctly defined by this time. The delegates of the small States generally took the federal side, while those of the large States usually advocated the national plan. Whatever was upheld by the large States, especially by Virginia, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, was opposed by the small States, which appeared to be in constant dread of the dominion which they supposed that the large States would exercise to the disadvantage of the inferior States. The breach between the two parties widened when the Convention declared in favor of the national plan, as proposed by Randolph. Within ten days afterward Dr. Franklin, shocked by the altercations in the Convention, arose and said: "Mr. President, How has it happened, sir, that while groping so long in the dark, divided in our opinions, and now ready to separate without accomplishing the great objects of our meeting, that we have not hitherto once thought of humbly applying to the Father of Lights to illuminate our understanding? In the beginning of the contest with Britain, when we were sensible of danger, we had daily prayers in this room for divine protection. Our prayers, sir, were heard, and they were graciously answered." After a few more remarks, Franklin moved that "henceforth, prayers, imploring the assistance of Heaven and its blessings on our deliberations, be held in this assembly every morning before we proceed to business." The resolution was not

adopted; as the Convention, excepting a very few delegates, thought prayers unnecessary; and as there were no funds to pay the expenses of such clerical services.

The federal party argued that the only principle of sovereignty was the government by States, and that recourse must be had to this principle for the existence of a government for the nation. They therefore assumed the name of federal, implying the support of a league of the States, as the proper form of a general government. The national party maintained that the Convention derived its power from the people of the United States to frame a Constitution; that the Convention was assembled to frame a Constitution for the people, and not for the States; and that the people, not the States, are to be governed and united. With a few exceptions, the national party did not deny the excellence of State governments. They maintained that these State governments are precisely what are needed to manage the local affairs of the various parts of the country, in which capacity the States will be truly pillars of the Union.

These different opinions had entered largely into the debates already decided by the adoption of Edmund Randolph's national plan for the Constitution. These same views were again brought forward with increased earnestness in relation to a question now presented for decision. In the Continental Congress, both before and during the period of the Articles of Confederation, the votes of the States had been equal; each State having but one vote, and no more. As already noticed, this was the rule of the Convention; but when the point was reached in the debates on the details of the Constitution the national party insisted upon an entirely different plan, asserting that the votes to be taken in the legislative branches of the new national government are not the votes of the States, but the votes of the people of the United States, and that these votes should therefore be given according to the numbers of the people, not of the States. The federal party, which had opposed the national plan on this very account, insisted

on the equal votes of the States, fearing that their small States with their few votes would be utterly absorbed by the large States. Delaware sent her delegates with express instructions to reserve her equal vote in the national legislature.

The federal party, already defeated, was destined to another defeat. Expressing its willingness to abandon the claim of an equal vote in both branches of the national legislature, it stood resolutely for equality in the proposed upper branch of that legislature—the United States Senate. But even this moderate demand was disregarded by the majority of the Convention, bent upon unequal votes in both branches of the national legislature. Great agitation followed. A delegate from a small State exclaimed with indignation: "We will sooner submit to a foreign power!" The question was referred to a committee, which, at Franklin's suggestion, adopted a compromise, giving the States equal votes in the Senate. But for this compromise the Convention would have broken up in confusion, and its work would have come to a sudden close.

Even as it was, the report of the committee scarcely allayed the tumultuous passions that had been aroused. It but partially satisfied the small States; while it aroused the anger of the large ones, as these latter had supposed themselves secure upon the point which they were thus obliged to yield. Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts said: "If no compromise should take place, what will be the consequence? A secession will take place, for some gentlemen seem decided on it." The federal party was the one that threatened secession. The national party as unwisely threatened to dismember and absorb the small States, by the sword if necessary. Two of the New York delegates, incensed or dejected by the triumphant course of the national party, retired from the Convention. Said Luther Martin of Maryland afterward: "We were on the verge of dissolution, scarce held together by the strength of a hair." Fortunately peace was preserved by the ac-

ceptance of the compromise by both parties; so that the States were to have equal representation in the Senate, and to be unequally represented according to population in the House of Representatives.

There was a great division in the Convention on the slavery question between the delegates from the North and those from the South. This system was abolished or about to be abolished in all the States north of Mason's and Dixon's Line, but was still maintained in the States south of that line. The first struggle upon the slavery question arose in regard to the apportionment of representation. It was to be decided how the people of the United States were to be represented in the House of Representatives, the popular branch of the proposed national legislature—in what proportions, and in what classes. The great question was whether slaves should be included with freemen in making up the number of Southern people entitled to representation, while at the same time these slaves should not be entitled to vote. The extreme party of the South said that the slaves must be included in such apportionment of representation, as they were as valuable as the free laborers of the North. The extreme party of the North declared that the slaves should never be taken into account as long as they were not emancipated, as they ought to be. This question also threatened to break up the Convention, and was also settled by compromise. The moderate delegates from the North and the South came together, and agreed that three-fifths of the slave population should be enumerated with the whites in the apportionment of Representatives among the States.

Another question which caused much discussion in the Convention was the powers of the executive. The more democratic delegates opposed the veto power of the executive. Among these was James Madison of Virginia. Alexander Hamilton and the monarchical party wanted the President elected for life or during good behavior. The Electoral College, as well as the election of two United States Senators by each

State Legislature, was a concession to the States Rights party.

In its practical operation, no part of the Constitution has so widely departed from the ideas of the framers of the Constitution as the Electoral College. They never dreamed that the choice of the Electors would enter into party politics and be decided in each State by popular vote. They did not have sufficient confidence in the people for that. Their idea in creating the Electoral College was to remove the election of President and Vice President entirely away from the people—to have the Electors of each State appointed by the Governor or Legislature of the State, and not chosen by the people directly.

A more serious point was now raised. In the draft of the Constitution now under debate there was a clause forbidding the general government to impose any tax or prohibition upon the migrations or importations authorized by the States, thus implying that there was to be no interference with the slave trade. Luther Martin of Maryland exclaimed: "It is inconsistent with the principles of the Revolution, and dishonorable to the American character, to have such a feature in the Constitution!" John Rutledge of South Carolina replied: "Religion and humanity have nothing to do with this question. Interest alone is the governing principle of nations. The true question at present is whether the Southern States shall or shall not be parties to the Union." Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, also of South Carolina, was calmer and took broader ground, saying: "If the States be left at liberty on this subject, South Carolina may perhaps by degrees do of herself what is wished, as Virginia and Maryland have already done."

The opposition to the claims of the extreme South did not come from the North, but from the more central States, particularly from Virginia. The North, desirous of the passage of laws for the protection of her large shipping interests, was willing to come to an understanding with the South. The result was that the Convention pro-

tracted the slave trade for twenty years, or until 1808; while the restriction upon laws concerning commerce was stricken from the Constitution. This dark transaction was a compromise. It was better to extend the slave trade for twenty years than to leave it without any restriction at all. At the end of these discussions the draft of the clause respecting fugitive slaves was introduced, and was accepted without debate. The word *slaves* was also avoided here, as in all other parts of the Constitution concerning slavery.

There were discussions on the details of the Constitution, but the interest in these debates was usually entirely subordinate to that excited by the questions already alluded to. As these questions involved compromise, it was felt that the Constitution depended upon them. The draft of a letter proposed to be addressed to Congress ran thus: "The Constitution which we now present is the result of a spirit of amity and of that mutual deference and concession which the peculiarity of our political situation rendered indispensable." Said James Wilson to his constituents of Pennsylvania: "I can well recollect the impression which on many occasions was made by the difficulties which surrounded and pressed the Convention. The great undertaking sometimes seemed to be at a stand, and other times its motions seemed to retrograde."

Finally, after almost four months' deliberation through all the heat of summer, the Convention agreed to the Constitution, September 15, 1787. As soon as it was properly engrossed, it was signed by all the delegates present, except Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts and Edmund Randolph and George Mason of Virginia, September 17, 1787. As the last members were signing the instrument, Dr. Franklin pointed to a sun painted on the back of the president's chair, saying: "I have often and often, in the course of the session and the vicissitude of my hopes and fears as to its issue, looked at that sun behind the president, without being able to tell whether it was rising or setting; but now, at length, I have

the happiness to know that it is a rising and not a setting sun."

The National Constitution invests the Government of the United States with three-fold powers—legislative, executive and judicial—each of which is independent in its own sphere, and each is a coördinate branch of the General Government. The legislative power is to enact laws; the executive power to execute them; and the judicial power to interpret them.

The Constitution vests the legislative power in a Congress of the United States, which consists of two branches, a Senate and a House of Representatives. The House of Representatives, or Lower House, consists of members chosen for two years by the people of the several States; the Representatives to be apportioned according to the population, which is ascertained every ten years. The Senate, or Upper House, consists of two members from each State, chosen for six years by the Legislatures of the States. The States retained the power of domestic legislation; but the Congress is invested with the power to declare war; to raise and support armies; to levy and collect taxes, duties, imports and excises; to coin money; to establish post-offices and post roads; to provide and maintain a navy; to call out the militia for the purpose of suppressing insurrection and repelling invasion; to admit new States into the Union; and to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting, the territory and other public property of the United States. All bills for raising the revenue originate in the House of Representatives, and that branch of the Congress has the sole power of impeachment; but the Senate has the sole power to try all impeachments, and to confirm all treaties and all executive appointments.

The Constitution vests the executive power in a President of the United States, who, with the Vice-President, is chosen for a term of four years by Electors, equal in number for each State to all its Senators and Representatives in the National Congress. No bill passed by the Congress can become

a law without the President's signature, unless repassed by a vote of two-thirds of each branch of that body. The President is also commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States. He must be a native-born citizen; and before he can enter upon the duties of his office he must solemnly swear, or affirm, that he will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of his ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States. The President has the power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, and to appoint ambassadors and other public ministers and consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and other officers of the United States. The duty of the Vice President is to preside over the Senate of the United States, but he is allowed no vote unless the Senate is equally divided, in which case he must give the casting vote; and in case of the death, resignation or removal of the President, the Vice President must perform the duties of President of the United States.

The Constitution vests the judicial power in a Supreme Court of the United States, consisting of a Chief-Justice and several Associate-Justices, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may establish. The judges of both the supreme and inferior courts hold their offices during good behavior. The judicial power of the United States extends to all cases arising under the Constitution and laws of the United States, and treaties made with foreign powers; to all cases of maritime jurisdiction; to all controversies to which the United States is a party; to all controversies between States; between citizens of different States; between a State and citizens of another State; between a State, or its citizens, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

The Constitution defines treason against the United States to consist in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies; and it provides for the removal of the President and all other civil officers of the United States, on impeachment for, and con-

viction of, treason, bribery and other misdemeanors. Provision is also made for the amendment of the Constitution; and for guaranteeing to every State of the Union a republican form of government, and for the protection of each against invasion or domestic violence. The Constitution is the Supreme Law of the Land; and all civil officers of the United States, and of the several States, are bound thereby.

The National Constitution was to go into effect as the Organic Law of the Republic upon its ratification by conventions of the people in nine States. The new instrument met with violent opposition from a large portion of the American people, and two parties were quickly formed upon the question of its adoption or rejection. Those in favor of its adoption were called Federalists, and those opposed to such action were designated Anti-Federalists. Some of the States very reluctantly yielded their assent to the new instrument; and some of the greatest men in America, such as Thomas Jefferson and Patrick Henry of Virginia, were strenuously opposed to its adoption, because it deprived the States and the people of too many of their former rights, and centralized too much power in the National Government. Even some of the delegates of the Constitutional Convention opposed it when they returned to their homes. Luther Martin of Maryland declared: "I would reduce myself to indigence and poverty, if on those terms only I could procure my country to reject those chains which are forged for it." Luther Martin, like Oliver Ellsworth and others, had been absent during the last days of the Convention.

But the articles in *The Federalist* in favor of its adoption, written by Alexander Hamilton and John Jay of New York, and James Madison of Virginia, had a powerful effect upon the public mind. Jeremy Belknap, a Boston clergyman, was a strong champion of the Constitution. Under the signature of "Fabius," John Dickinson of Delaware, formerly of Pennsylvania—whose *Farmer's Letters* had pleaded for liberty twenty years before, but who had in 1776

opposed the Declaration of Independence as premature—now pleaded for constitutional government. Francis Hopkinson of Philadelphia wrote an allegory called the *New Roof* in support of the Constitution, and William Billings of Boston was the author of a patriotic song called *Columbia* in support of the same instrument.

The National Constitution was ratified by conventions of the people in eleven States in the following order: Delaware, December 7, 1787; Pennsylvania, December 12, 1787; New Jersey, December 18, 1787; Georgia, January 2, 1788; Connecticut, January 9, 1788; Massachusetts, February 6, 1788; Maryland, April 28, 1788; South Carolina, May 23, 1788; New Hampshire, June 21, 1788; Virginia, June 26, 1788; New York, July 26, 1788.

The various State conventions ratified the Constitution by very small majorities. In most of these conventions a series of amendments was framed and passed. North Carolina refused to consent unless her amendments were adopted. The New York convention urged upon the nation another general convention. New York was the scene of more decided demonstrations. The many riots throughout the country began with a collision between two bands of the rival parties at Albany, July 4, 1788, and ended with the destruction of the type of an Anti-Federalist newspaper establishment in New York City, July 27, 1788. The project of another general convention found favor in Pennsylvania; and the Assembly of Virginia took up the matter, but after the convention of that State had accepted the Constitution. Thus the large States, to which the Constitution was supposed to be particularly acceptable, developed the greatest opposition to the new instrument of government. Massachusetts had but a bare majority in favor of the Constitution. The small states, which had so bitterly opposed the Constitution in the Convention, were now its most earnest supporters. The parties in the large States opposing the Constitution were unable to combine with any effect, and the generous

impulses and united exertions of its advocates carried it through in triumph. North Carolina and Rhode Island were the only two of the thirteen States that held aloof until after the organization of the new government; North Carolina ratifying the Constitution, November 21, 1789, and Rhode Island, May 29, 1790.

Thus, after much opposition, the Constitution was finally ratified in 1788 by the conventions in eleven States; whereupon it became the Supreme Law of the American Republic. On September 13, 1788, Congress appointed days for the requisite elections and for the organization of the new government; and on the 4th of March, 1789, the old Continental Congress expired, and the new National Government went into full operation. Then the Republic of the United States of America commenced its glorious career.

Thus was completed one of the most extraordinary transactions in history. An infant nation enfeebled, dismembered and dispirited, broken by the losses of a war for existence, by the dissensions of peace, incapacitated for its duties to its own citizens or to foreign powers, suddenly bestirred itself and prepared a national government. It chose its representatives without conflicts or even without emotions. These representatives assembled, at first only to disagree, to threaten and to fail; but the inspiration of a national cause proved potent against the spells of individual selfishness and sectional passion. The representatives of the nation consented to the measures on which depended the common honor and the common safety. The nation itself then broke out in clamors, but there was very little violence. No contentions arose between the States. Each had its own differences, but when each had decided for itself it united with the others in proclaiming the National Constitution.

Said Washington: "I conceive under an energetic general government such regulations might be made and such measures taken as would render this country the asylum of pacific and industrious characters from all

parts of Europe"—as he said in another place, "a kind of asylum for mankind." Thus he and other generous spirits looked beyond the limits of their country, and the

work achieved was not only for the nation that achieved it. It was not only for America that her sons labored, but for all mankind.

DERIVATION OF THORFIN, THE DANE, EARL OF THE ORKNEY ISLES, FOUNDER OF THE WASHINGTON FAMILY IN ENGLAND, A. D. 1030-'35, FROM ODIN, FIRST KING OF SCANDINAVIA, B. C. 70.

ODIN, the son of Fridulf, supreme ruler of the Scythians, in Asaland, or Asaheim, Turkestan, between the Euxine and Caspian Seas, in Asia. He reigned at Asgard, whence he removed in the year B. C. 70, and became the first King of Scandinavia. He died in the year B. C. 50, and was succeeded by his sons, who reigned in different parts of Scandinavia. His son

SKIOLD became King of Zealand and Jutland, B. C. 50, and died B. C. 40. His son was:

FRIDLEIF, who became the first King of Denmark, B. C. 40. He died B. C. 23. His son was:

FRODE FREDIGOD, who became King of Denmark, B. C. 23. He died A. D. 35. His son was:

FRODE II., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 59. He died A. D. 87. His son was:

VERMUND THE SAGE, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 87, and died A. D. 140. His son was:

OLAF THE MILD, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 140. Ob. A. D. 190. His

Daughter became Queen of Denmark—and DAN MYKILLATI, her husband, became King of Denmark, A. D. 190. He died A. D. 270. His son was:

FRODE III., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 270. He died A. D. 310. His son was:

HALFDAN, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 310. Ob. A. D. 324. His son was:

FRIDLEIF III., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 324. He died A. D. 348. His son was:

FRODE IV., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 348. He died A. D. 407. His son was:

HALFDAN II., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 456. Ob. A. D. 457. His son was:

ROE, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 460. He died A. D. 494. His son was:

FRODE VI., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 494. He died A. D. 510. His son was:

FRODE VII., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 522. He died A. D. 548. His son was:

HALFDAN III., who became King of Denmark, A. D. 548. He died A. D. 580. His son was:

IVAR VIDFADME, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 588. Ob. A. D. 647. His daughter,

AUDA DIUPHRAUDZA, Queen of Holmgard, married RERICK, King of Holmgard. Her son was:

HARALD HILDETAND, who became King of Denmark, A. D. 647. Ob. A. D. 735. His son was:

THROUD, King of Frondheim, who married, A. D. 750, a daughter of SIGURD HRING. His son was:

EISTEN, King of Frondheim, born about A. D. 755. Married A. D. 780. His son was:

HALFDAN, King of Frondheim, born about A. D. 785. Married A. D. 810. His son was:

EISTEN GLUMRU, King of Thrandia, born about A. D. 815, became King of Thrandia, A. D. 840. His

Daughter married, A. D. 850, IVAR, Earl of Up-land. Their son was:

EISTEN GLUMRU. He was living A. D. 870. His son was:

ROGVALD, who was Earl of Moere, A. D. 885. His son was:

EINAR, Earl of the Orkney Isles. His son was:

TORFIDUR, who was Earl of the Orkney Isles, A. D. 942. His son was:

LODVER, who was Earl of the Orkney Isles. His son was:

SIGURD, who was Earl of the Orkney Isles. His son was:

THORFIN THE DANE, Earl of the Orkney Isles, also called TORKILL, of Richmondshire, England, Baron and Lord of Tanfield, Founder of the Washington Family in England.

DERIVATION OF GEORGE WASHINGTON, FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM THORFIN THE DANE.

THORFIN THE DANE, Earl of the Orkney Isles, also called Torkill, of Richmondshire, England, Baron and Lord of Tanfield, Founder of the Washington Family in England, was born about A. D. 1010, and settled in Yorkshire, England, about 1030-35. Ob. about A. D. 1080. His son was:

BARDOLF FIL THORFIN, born about A. D. 1035. Ob. about A. D. 1120. His son was:

AKARIS FIL BARDOLF, born about A. D. 1080. Ob. A. D. 1161. His son was:

BONDO FIL AKARIS, born about A. D. 1122. Ob. about A. D. 1200. His son was:

WALTER FIL BONDO DE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1160. Obit about A. D. 1245. His son was:

ROBERT DE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1195. Obit about A. D. 1260. His son was:

ROBERT DE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1230. Obit about A. D. 1300. His son was:

ROBERT WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1265. Obit about A. D. 1325. His son was:

JOHN WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1305. He died before A. D. 1386. His son was:

JOHN WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1330. He died about A. D. 1405. His son was:

JOHN WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1365. He died about A. D. 1425. His son was:

ROBERT WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1400. He died about A. D. 1479. His son was:

JOHN WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1430. He died May 4, A. D. 1501. His son was:

ROBERT WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1467. He died September 20, A. D. 1517. His son was:

THOMAS WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1493. He died about A. D. 1560. His son was:

LAURENCE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1515. He was living A. D. 1543. He was Mayor of Northampton. His son was:

LAURENCE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1540. He was living A. D. 1588. His son was:

LAURENCE WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1569. He was living A. D. 1629. His son was:

LEONARD WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1595. He died A. D. 1657. His son was:

COLONEL JOHN WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1627. He came to Virginia in 1659. He died in January, A. D. 1677. His son was:

LAURENCE WASHINGTON, born about A. D. 1661. He died A. D. 1697. His son was:

AUGUSTINE WASHINGTON, born A. D. 1694. He died April 12, A. D. 1743. His son was:

GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON, first President of the United States, born February 22, A. D. 1732, and died December 14, A. D. 1799.

SECTION X.—ENGLAND, IRELAND AND BRITISH INDIA.



SAYS John Richard Green, the English historian: "The history of Ireland, from its conquest by William the Third up to this time, is one which no Englishman can recall without shame. Since the surrender of Limerick every Catholic Irishman, and there were five Catholics to every Protestant, had been treated as a stranger and a foreigner in his own country."

The Catholic or native Irish were excluded from the Irish House of Lords and House of Commons, from the right to vote for members of this Parliament, from the magistracy, from all corporate offices in towns, from all ranks in the army, from the bench, from the bar, from the whole administration of government or justice in Ireland.

Says Green: "Few Catholic landowners had been left by the sweeping confiscations which had followed the successive revolts of the island; and oppressive laws forced even these few, with scant exceptions, to profess Protestantism. Necessity, indeed, had brought about a practical toleration of

their religion and their worship; but in all social and political matters the native Catholics, in other words the immense majority of the people of Ireland, were simply hewers of wood and drawers of water to their Protestant masters, who still looked on themselves as mere settlers, who boasted of their Scotch or English extraction, and who regarded the name of 'Irishman' as an insult."

Thus the Catholic population of Ireland was disfranchised and oppressed by the few English and Scotch colonists who had settled in the island during the reigns of the Stuarts. But one-half of this small Protestant population possessed but little more political power than the Catholics; as the Presbyterians, who constituted the great majority of the English and Scotch settlers of Ulster, were excluded by law from all civil, military and municipal offices. Thus the administration and justice in Ireland were kept rigidly in the hands of members of the State Church, which embraced about a twelfth of the population of the island; while the government of the Emerald Isle

was virtually monopolized by a few great Protestant landowners.

By this time the rotten boroughs of Ireland, which had originally been created to render the Irish Parliament dependent on the English crown, had come under the influence of the neighboring landlords, who thus became masters of the Irish House of Commons, while they personally constituted the Irish House of Lords. This system had attained such proportions that at the time of the Parliamentary Union of Ireland with Great Britain in 1801 more than sixty seats in the Irish House of Commons were in the hands of three powerful families—those of Lord Downshire, the Ponsonbys and the Beresfords. One-half of the Irish House of Commons was actually chosen by a small body of nobles, who were styled “Parliamentary undertakers,” and undertook to “manage” the Irish Parliament on their own terms. These men looked upon Irish politics as a means of public plunder. They were enriched with pensions, preferments, and bribes in hard cash, as a reward for their services. They were the counselors of every Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and practically governed the country. Says Green: “The result was what might have been expected; and for more than a century Ireland was the worst governed country in Europe.”

The government of Ireland would have been even worse than it was had it not been for the subordination of the Irish Parliament to the British Privy Council. The Irish Parliament was without the power to originate legislative or financial measures, and was only empowered to approve or reject the acts submitted to it by the Privy Council of Great Britain. The British Parliament also claimed the right to bind Ireland, as well as England and Scotland, by its enactments; and one of its statutes transferred the appellate jurisdiction of the Irish peerage to the British House of Lords. Though these restrictions were galling to the plundering aristocracy of Ireland, they were a wholesome check on its tyranny.

In the language of Green: “But as if to

compensate for the benefits of this protection, England did her best to annihilate Irish commerce and to ruin Irish agriculture.” The jealousy of English landowners caused the enactment of statute after statute forbidding the export of cattle or sheep from Ireland to England. The export of wool from Ireland was also forbidden lest it might curtail the profits of English wool-growers. Says Green: “Poverty was thus added to the curse of misgovernment, and poverty deepened with the rapid growth of the native population, till famine turned the country into a hell.”

But the bitter lesson of the last English conquest of Ireland—that by William III.—long tended to check all designs of revolt among the native Catholic Irish, and the murders and riots which occurred at various times in consequence of the misery and discontent of the Irish population were sternly repressed by the English Protestant ruling class.

When Ireland threatened revolt against England at last, the threat proceeded from the tyrannical ruling class of Ireland itself. At the accession of George III. the British government made some efforts to control the tyranny of the selfish oligarchy of Ireland; whereupon the Irish Parliament refused to vote money bills, and demanded the removal of the checks imposed upon its independence. In 1768 the situation of Ireland gave considerable uneasiness to the Ministry of the Duke of Grafton; as the Irish Parliament demanded the repeal of Poyning's Law, passed by the English Parliament during the reign of Henry VII. and extended by several subsequent statutes, and which had made the Parliament of Ireland so dependent on the British government that it had become a mere nullity.

The strong party which had been formed in Ireland to achieve the legislative independence of that country gained a part of its object by the passage of the *Oftennial Act*, which limited the duration of Irish Parliaments to eight years. Prior to that the Irish Parliament had been dissolved only on the death of the sovereign. In

1769 the Irish Parliament manifested such a determination to cast off the English yoke that the British Ministry was obliged to elude its demands by a prorogation.

During the War of the American Revolution—when the whole civilized world was united directly or indirectly against England—Ireland arose and demanded the independence of her Parliament; thus adding a new political danger to England's other perils in this momentous crisis of her history. The threat of a French invasion of Great Britain and Ireland in 1779, and the want of any regular military force to oppose such invasion, left Lord North's Ministry under the necessity of calling upon Ireland to provide for its own defense; and in that year forty thousand Protestant volunteers, commanded by Protestant officers, appeared in arms, and were turned to account by the Protestant aristocracy which had so long oppressed and misruled Ireland.

The fervid eloquence of two Irish Parliamentary leaders—Henry Grattan and Henry Flood—threatened Great Britain with another armed revolt in the midst of her struggle with her rebellious North American colonies and their European allies; and the Irish volunteers, who soon numbered a hundred thousand, bid for the sympathy of the native Catholic Irish by claiming for them a relaxation of the penal laws against the exercise of their religion and of some of their most oppressive disabilities.

Lord North's Ministry, with the blindness and obstinacy which characterized all its measures, stubbornly refused to concede the demand for the legislative independence of Ireland; but the brief Whig Ministry of the Marquis of Rockingham in 1782—which took steps to end the War of American Independence—conceded the independence of the Irish Parliament by inducing the British Parliament to abandon the judicial and legislative supremacy which it had hitherto asserted over Ireland. For the next eighteen years, A. 1782–1800, Ireland was entirely independent of the British Parliament, and was simply united with Great Britain under one sovereign. Thus the two island

kingdoms were only held together by the fact that the sovereign of one was also the sovereign of the other, being independent of each other in everything else. This concession satisfied Ireland for the time.

ROBERT CLIVE AND WARREN HASTINGS.

The affairs of British India, as well as those of America and Ireland, occupied the attention of Great Britain during the first part of the reign of George III., in the last half of the eighteenth century. As we have seen, the British Empire in India was founded by Colonel Robert Clive on the ruins of the Great Mogul Empire founded by Baber several centuries before, and on the total subversion of the French power in India. Colonel Clive was rewarded for his distinguished services by being raised to the peerage of England with the title of Lord Clive, Baron of Plassey. Under his government, the English East-India Company obtained the sovereignty of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa, on condition of paying twelve lacs of rupees annually to the nominal Mogul Emperor at Delhi.

The work of organization was soon to follow that of conquest, as the tyranny and corruption of the merchant-clerks who had suddenly become rulers were fast ruining the province of Bengal; and though Clive had reaped more profit than any other by the spoils of his victory he soon perceived that avarice must yield to the responsibilities of power. As soon as the East India Company had acquired the sovereignty of the rich and opulent provinces of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa, a conflict of interest arose between the Company's directors in England and its officers in India. The directors desired to increase their commercial dividends by the revenues of their territories in India, while the officers in India were as determined to apply the surplus income to their own purposes. The want of control over the Company's subordinate authorities in India produced the most lamentable consequences. The Company's officers in India established monopolies in all the chief branches of the domestic trade of that

country, rendered property insecure by arbitrarily changing the tenure of land, and perverted the administration of justice to protect their avarice.

Clive's administration, after his return to India in 1765, lasted two years, and constituted the most glorious years of his life. In spite of opposition from every clerk of the Company, and in spite of mutiny among the Company's troops, Clive suppressed the private trading of the Company's servants in India, and forbade them to accept any presents from the natives. Clive set an example of disinterestedness by relinquishing to public uses a large legacy which had been bequeathed to him by a prince whom he had raised to the throne of Bengal; and he returned to England poorer than he went, only to face the storm that his proceedings had aroused among those in England who were interested in abuses in India.

The injustice of the East India Company's servants toward the native princes aroused a formidable foe to the English. In 1767 Hyder Ali, a military adventurer, who by the force of his own abilities had become Sultan of Mysore, began a war against the Company, imperiling the existence of its territories, and keeping its settlements in a state of constant alarm for several years.

Clive's unsparing denunciations of the misgovernment of Bengal finally aroused even Lord North to interfere; and, when the East India Company's financial distress obliged it to seek aid from the government, the government's grant of assistance was coupled with measures of administrative reform. The *Regulation Act*, passed by the British Parliament in 1773, placed all the possessions of the East India Company under a *Governor-General* and a *Supreme Court of Judicature*, at Calcutta; thus concentrating the power of the three presidencies of Bengal, Madras and Bombay under one government. The *Regulation Act* prohibited judges and members of the Council of Bengal under the Governor-General at Calcutta from trading, forbade the acceptance of any gifts from native Hindoos, and ordered that every act of the directors of the Company

should be submitted to the British government to be approved or disallowed.

The new interest aroused in England concerning India was seen in an investigation of the East India Company's administration of affairs by a committee of the House of Commons. Clive's own early acts were examined by this committee with unsparing rigor. His bitter complaint that he had been arraigned like a sheep-stealer did not prevent the passage of resolutions by the House of Commons censuring the corruption and treachery of the early days of the Company's dominion in India. But the justice of the House of Commons ended there. When Clive's accusers proceeded from the censure of the Company's misrule to the censure of Clive himself the House of Commons, in memory of his great exploits, unanimously voted "that Robert Lord Clive did at the same time render great and meritorious services to his country." But although Clive was acquitted of the charge of misrule and oppression, this searching Parliamentary investigation of his acts drove him to despair and suicide, A. D. 1774.

Upon the passage of the *Regulation Act* of 1773 Warren Hastings became the first Governor-General of British India. He belonged to a noble family that had long fallen into decay, and in his boyhood his poverty had obliged him to accept a clerkship in the service of the East India Company. Clive's quick eye discerned the merits of Hastings, whom he brought into political life after the battle of Plassey; and the administrative ability which Hastings displayed during the disturbed period which followed led to his elevation from one post to another until he became Governor of Bengal. No one could have been more competent to discharge the duties of the new office of Governor-General which the British government had created without an idea of its real greatness. He was endowed with rare powers of organization and control.

The first measure of Warren Hastings as Governor-General of British India was to establish the direct rule of the East India Company over Bengal by abolishing the

government of its native princes, which, though having become merely nominal, frustrated all projects for effective administration. The Nabob of Bengal became a pensionary of the East India Company, whose new province of Bengal was roughly but efficiently organized. Hastings formed an able body of public servants out of the clerks and traders of the Company. He devised a system of law and finance far superior to any that India had ever before known or seen, hasty and imperfect as it necessarily was. He stamped out corruption with as firm a hand as Clive had done, but he acquired the love of the new "civilians," while he also won the affection of the Hindoos. Although he raised the revenue of Bengal, and was able to send annually a surplus of half a million pounds to the Company in England, he did so without imposing a fresh burden on the natives or losing their good-will.

The administration of Warren Hastings was guided by an intimate knowledge of and sympathy with the people of India. At a time when the Hindoo language was regarded simply as a medium of trade and business, he was familiar with that language in its various dialects, and was conversant with the native customs and with the native feeling. It is therefore not surprising that he was more popular with the Bengalees than any other British ruler in India, and that Hindoo mothers still hush their infants with the name of Warren Hastings.

The conscious and deliberate design of subjecting India to the British crown commenced with Warren Hastings. Though English influence was great in the South of India, Bengal was then alone directly in the possession of the English. The policy of Warren Hastings was directed toward making England mistress of all Hindoostan, from the island of Ceylon on the south to the Himalayas on the north, and from the frontier of Afghanistan on the west to the borders of Burmah on the east. For this purpose Warren Hastings bound the native princes of Oude and Berar by treaties and

subsidies, crushed without scruple every state which appeared to afford a nucleus for resistance, like that of the Rohillas, and watched with ceaseless jealousy the growth of powers as remote as that of the Sikhs.

Warren Hastings was surprised in the midst of his vast schemes by the War of American Independence, which hurried him into immediate action most unexpectedly. The jealousy of France sought a counterpoise to British power in the Mahrattas, those Hindoo freebooters whose tribes had for a century raided India from the Western Ghats and founded sovereignties in Guzerat, Malwa and Tanjore. All the Mahratta tribes were bound by a slight tie of subjection to the Mahratta chief who reigned at Poonah, and through this chieftain the French envoys were able to unite the whole Mahratta confederacy against the English power in India.

Warren Hastings met the danger which threatened him with characteristic promptness of resolution. He was surrounded with great difficulties. The opposition of his Council had rendered him powerless for two years; and when he was released from that obstacle the East India Company pressed him constantly for money, and the crown repeatedly threatened to recall him. His own general, Sir Eyre Coote, was miserly and capricious, and had to be humored like a child. Every mail which he received brought censures and complaints; but he never lost his calm self-command, and his action showed no trace of embarrassment. He prosecuted the war with the Mahrattas with the most unrelenting tenacity of purpose, in spite of the blunders of his subordinates and the inefficiency of the soldiers at his command.

The English arms encountered repeated failures; and no sooner had the struggle with the Mahrattas promised a favorable issue than a more powerful foe to English dominion in India appeared in Hyder Ali, who, in alliance with the French and the Dutch, began a second war with the East India Company in 1780, as already noticed in the section on the War of the American

Revolution. Warren Hastings heard of Hyder Ali's formidable invasion of the Carnatic when he was about to triumph over the Mahrattas; but he instantly made peace with the Mahrattas and hurried all his forces to Madras, which was in imminent danger of capture. Sir Eyre Coote's victory over Hyder Ali at Porto Novo in 1781 hurled that native prince back into the fastnesses of Mysore, and India was the only quarter in which the English lost nothing during the War of the American Revolution.

Though the schemes of conquest planned by Warren Hastings were frustrated for the time, the annexation of Benares, the extension of the East India Company's dominions along the Ganges, the reduction of Oude to virtual dependence, the appearance of British armies in Central Hindoostan, and Hyder Ali's defeat, laid the foundation for the extension of the British dominion over the whole of Hindoostan—a result which the genius of Hastings was bold and sagacious enough to foresee.

THE SECOND WILLIAM PITT.

With the brief Ministry of the Marquis of Rockingham in 1782 a new power arose in the House of Commons—the younger William Pitt, the second son of the elder William Pitt, the Great Commoner and afterward the illustrious Earl of Chatham. The younger Pitt, though but twenty-two years of age, soon took rank as one of the Whigs—a distinction which he shared with Charles James Fox. Pitt had just left college with the learning of a ripe scholar. After his first speech in the House of Commons a member of Parliament said to Charles James Fox: "He will be one of the first men in Parliament." Fox replied: "He is so already." Edmund Burke then said of the younger Pitt, comparing him with his renowned father: "He is not a chip of the old block. He is the old block itself." This "boy," as his political rivals sneeringly called him, was soon to crush every political opponent and to make himself master of the destinies of England. His figure was tall and spare, his demeanor was grave, his countenance

was never lighted by a smile, and his address was cold and repulsive.

The return of the Whig party to power soon developed a new breach between the bulk of the party headed by Charles James Fox and the small faction under the leadership of the Earl of Shelburne and the younger William Pitt. Pitt introduced a bill for the reform of the House of Commons on the plan proposed by his illustrious father in 1770. But the bulk of the Whigs would not consent to sacrifice their property and influence which such a reform would involve, and Pitt's bill was therefore rejected. In its stead the Ministry sought to weaken the means of corrupt influence which the king had used so unscrupulously by disqualifying persons holding government contracts from occupying seats in Parliament, by depriving revenue officers of the elective franchise, and also by a bill introduced by Edmund Burke to reduce the civil establishment, the pension list and the secret-service fund. These measures somewhat diminished the influence of the crown over Parliament, and put an end to the direct bribery of members of Parliament; but they did not render the House of Commons really representative of or responsible to the people of England.

The jealousy which the bulk of the Whigs entertained for the more progressive faction under the Earl of Shelburne was shown when, upon the death of the Marquis of Rockingham, in July, 1782, and the accession of the Earl of Shelburne to the head of the Ministry, Mr. Fox and his immediate supporters in the Ministry resigned, while the youthful Pitt became Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The Ministry of the Earl of Shelburne only lasted long enough to conclude the Treaties of Paris and Versailles, which ended the War of American Independence. Early in 1783, to the utter astonishment of all England, Mr. Fox and the Whig faction which he headed formed a coalition with the Tory faction under Lord North, whom he had so long and so bitterly opposed. This coalition was the most unscrupulous in

British history. The united Parliamentary influence of Mr. Fox and Lord North was irresistible. They overthrew the Ministry of the Earl of Shelburne, and forced themselves into the royal councils in spite of the king's secret dislike and the nation's open disgust.

Secure in their Parliamentary majority, and regardless of the power of public opinion, the Coalition Ministry undertook a task greater than any that had yet taxed the genius of English statesmen. In spite of the fortunate termination of the wars with the Mahrattas and with Hyder Ali, and the extension of the East India Company's dominion in Bengal by the capture of Negapatam from the Dutch during the War of the American Revolution, the aspect of affairs in India was gloomy and threatening. All the exactions of the Company were not sufficient to enable it to fulfill its engagements with the British government, and its affairs were regarded as fast approaching bankruptcy. It had likewise been found very inconvenient to have a powerful merchant company existing as a state within the state, and all parties in England were agreed that the East India Company ought to be placed more directly under the control of the British government.

Mr. Fox introduced a bill in the House of Commons providing for the transfer of the civil government of British India from the directors of the East India Company to a board of seven commissioners, to be nominated by Parliament and confirmed by the crown, to remain in office five years, but subject to removal on address from either House of Parliament. This bill, on which Mr. Fox had staked the existence of the Coalition Ministry, immediately encountered a storm of opposition. The scheme was an injudicious one; as the new commissioners would have been destitute of the political knowledge of India possessed by the East India Company, while such a board would manifestly be an independent authority within the state, and the want of an immediate link between the board and the Ministry of the crown would have prevented Parliament

from exercising any real control over its acts.

Great was the popular outcry against Mr. Fox's India bill. The mercantile class were galled by the blow aimed at the greatest merchant company in the kingdom. Corporations trembled at the cancellation of a charter. King George III. looked upon the measure as a design to transfer the patronage of India to the Whig party, and thus make the power of a party rival the power of the king. The opposition of the English people at large to the bill was on account of the character of the Ministry which proposed it. The Whigs had rejected the younger Pitt's proposal of Parliamentary reform a second time, while Mr. Fox's coalition with Lord North showed that in an unreformed Parliament the force of public opinion was powerless to check the most disgraceful efforts of political faction. The power of the crown had been diminished by the reforms introduced by the Marquis of Rockingham to the profit of the borough-mongers who usurped the people's representation, but not to the advantage of the English people themselves.

To give the government and patronage of India to the existing House of Commons was to give a new and immense power to a body which misused in the grossest manner the power which it already possessed. This popular feeling encouraged the king to exert his personal influence to defeat the measure; and, when the bill had passed the House of Commons, His Majesty, through Earl Temple, intimated his opposition to the measure; whereupon the House of Lords rejected it by a considerable majority. As the Coalition Ministry appeared unwilling to resign it was summarily dismissed by the king, in December, 1783; and a new ministry was formed under the younger William Pitt, who was then but twenty-five years of age.

Pitt's position of First Lord of the Treasury would have been insecure had the English people sustained their nominal representatives. The House of Commons repeatedly rejected his measures by large majorities; but these majorities dwindled as

the addresses which poured in from every part of the kingdom, from the Tory University of Oxford as well as from the Whig Corporation of London, showed that public opinion sustained the young Prime Minister and not the House of Commons. This popular approval justified Pitt in the firmness with which he delayed the dissolution of Parliament for five months, in the face of addresses for his dismissal from office, and gained time for that maturity of public opinion on which he counted for success. The Parliamentary elections of 1784 ended the struggle. Public sentiment had become strong enough for the time to break through the corrupt influences which generally rendered Parliamentary representation a farce. Every great constituency elected supporters of Pitt, and a hundred and sixty members of the majority which had defeated him in the House of Commons were defeated, while but a remnant of the Whig party was saved by its control of nomination boroughs.

British India is indebted to Pitt's triumph for a form of government which remains unchanged to the present time. The India bill which he introduced in 1784 preserved apparently the political and commercial powers of the directors of the East India Company, while it established a Board of Control formed from members of the Privy Council for the approval or rejection of the acts of the directors. But the powers of the directors were virtually absorbed by a secret committee of three elected members of the board of directors, to whom all the more important administrative functions had been reserved by the bill, while the powers of the Board of Control were practically exercised by its president. As this president was virtually a new Secretary of State for the Indian Department, and became an important member of each Ministry, responsible to Parliament for his actions like his fellow-members, the administration of India was thus made a part of the general system of the British government; while the secret committee supplied the practical experience of Indian affairs in which the Prime Minister might be lacking.

But a far more important change than any which could be effected by Parliamentary legislation occurred at that time in England's attitude toward its great Asiatic dependency. The discussions of the rival India bills of Mr. Fox and Mr. Pitt created a sense of responsibility for the good government of India. There was a general determination that the security against misrule which the poorest Englishman enjoyed should also be enjoyed by the poorest Hindoo, and this determination manifested itself in the memorable impeachment and trial of Warren Hastings.

At the close of the war with Hyder Ali and his son Tippoo Saib, Warren Hastings returned to England from India, hoping to receive rewards as great as those which had been conferred on Robert Clive. Hastings had saved all that Clive had won. He had laid the foundation of a vast British dominion in the East. He had displayed rare powers of administration, and the foresight, courage and moderation of an able ruler.

But the wisdom and glory of the administration of Warren Hastings could not conceal its oppression and extortion. To satisfy the incessant demands of the East India Company, to support his wars, to maintain his diplomacy, he had needed money; and he took it wherever he could find it. For an immense sum he had sold the services of British troops to crush the free tribes of the Rohillas. By oppression he had extorted half a million pounds from the Rajah of Benares. By torture and starvation he had wrung over a million pounds from the Princesses of Oude.

Warren Hastings had also maintained his power by the most unscrupulous measures. At the beginning of his career, when he was considered helpless before his enemies in the Council, he had displayed his power by using the forms of English law in putting Nuncomar, a native who supported the party opposed to him, to death as a forger. When Sir Elijah Impey, the first Chief Justice of Bengal, opposed his plans, he bribed him into acquiescence by creating a fictitious and lucrative office for him.

Although Warren Hastings was not guilty of corruption, and although he had not sought power from selfish motives, but from a firm conviction that his hold of power was essential to the preservation of India to the British crown, even Pitt shrank from justifying his acts when Edmund Burke moved the impeachment of Hastings in the House of Commons in 1786.

In this speech of passionate eloquence Burke said: "I impeach Warren Hastings, Esquire, of high crimes and misdemeanors. I impeach him in the name of the Commons of Great Britain, in Parliament assembled, whose Parliamentary trust he has betrayed. I impeach him in the name of all the Commons of Great Britain, whose national character he has dishonored. I impeach him in the name of the people of India, whose laws, rights and liberties he has subverted; whose properties he has destroyed; whose country he has laid waste and desolate. I impeach him in the name and by the virtue of those eternal laws of justice which he has violated. I impeach him in the name of human nature itself, which he has cruelly outraged, injured and oppressed, in both sexes, in every age, rank, situation and condition of life."

The great trial of Warren Hastings at the bar of the House of Lords lingered eight years, during which the brilliant galaxy of great British statesmen—Burke, Fox and Sheridan—distinguished themselves by their oratory in their speeches against the accused; and the proceedings ended in the acquittal of Mr. Hastings by the House of Lords in 1794, at least of intentional wrong, as the East India Company by its ceaseless demands for large remittances were more responsible than the Governor-General; but the protracted prosecution ruined the accused in health and fortune.

Though Warren Hastings was acquitted, the object of his impeachment had really been gained, as the crimes which sullied his glory have never been practiced by the worst of his successors. Ever since that day the peasant of Bengal or Mysore has enjoyed the same rights of justice and good

government as are claimed by Englishmen. In 1785 Warren Hastings had been succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Sir John MacPherson, who was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis in 1786.

Pitt had refused to shelter Warren Hastings, in spite of pressure from King George III. himself. When the new Parliament assembled in 1784, Pitt, though but twenty-five years of age, seemed master of England as no Prime Minister had been before him. Even the king yielded to his sway, partly through gratitude for the triumph which the youthful Minister had won for His Majesty over the Whigs, and partly from a consciousness of the coming madness which was soon to afflict him.

The Whig party was broken, unpopular and without a policy. The Tories adhered to the Prime Minister who had "saved the king." Pitt was incorruptible, too proud to accept a bribe, and honestly sought his country's welfare. He was a man of gigantic ability, and by far the greatest statesman of England in his time. He was his father's inferior as an orator, but his superior in many other qualities, particularly in his power of self-command, his immense capacity for business and his untiring industry.

The trading classes saw in the younger William Pitt all that they had loved in his renowned father—his nobleness of temper, his consciousness of power, his patriotism, his sympathy with the public. His simplicity and good taste freed him from his father's ostentation and extravagance. The younger Pitt resembled Sir Robert Walpole in his love of peace, his great industry, his dispatch of public business, his skill in debate, his knowledge of finance; but, as he cared not for personal gain, he was free from the corruption which sullied Walpole's long administration.

Pitt's lofty self-esteem freed him from any jealousy of his subordinates. He was generous in his appreciation of youthful merits; and the "boys" whom he called about him, such as George Canning and Arthur Wellesley, both of whom afterward played so prominent a part in the destinies of Great

Britain, rewarded his generosity by a devotion which did not cease with death.

The younger Pitt had no sympathy whatever with Walpole's cynical inaction. His policy from the very beginning was one of active reform; and he faced all the financial, constitutional and religious problems from which Walpole had shrunk. More than all, Pitt was free from Walpole's scorn of his fellow-men. The noblest feature in Pitt's mind was its wide humanity. His love for England was no less deep and personal than his father's love, but he was free from the sympathy with English passion and English prejudice which had been both his father's weakness and strength. When Charles James Fox taunted him with forgetting his father's jealousy of France, and his faith that France was the natural enemy of England, Pitt replied nobly that "to suppose any nation can be unalterably the enemy of another is weak and childish."

The temper of the age and the wider sympathy of man with his fellow, which particularly characterized the last half of the eighteenth century as a turning-point in the history of mankind, was everywhere bringing to the front a new class of European statesmen, such as the French Prime Minister Turgot and the Emperor Joseph II. of Germany, who were distinguished by their love of the human race and by a belief that as the happiness of each individual can only be secured by the general happiness of the community of which he forms a part, so the welfare of each nation can only be secured by the general welfare of the world. Pitt belonged to this class of contemporary European statesmen, but he was superior to the rest of them in the consummate knowledge and the practical force which he brought to the realization of his aims.

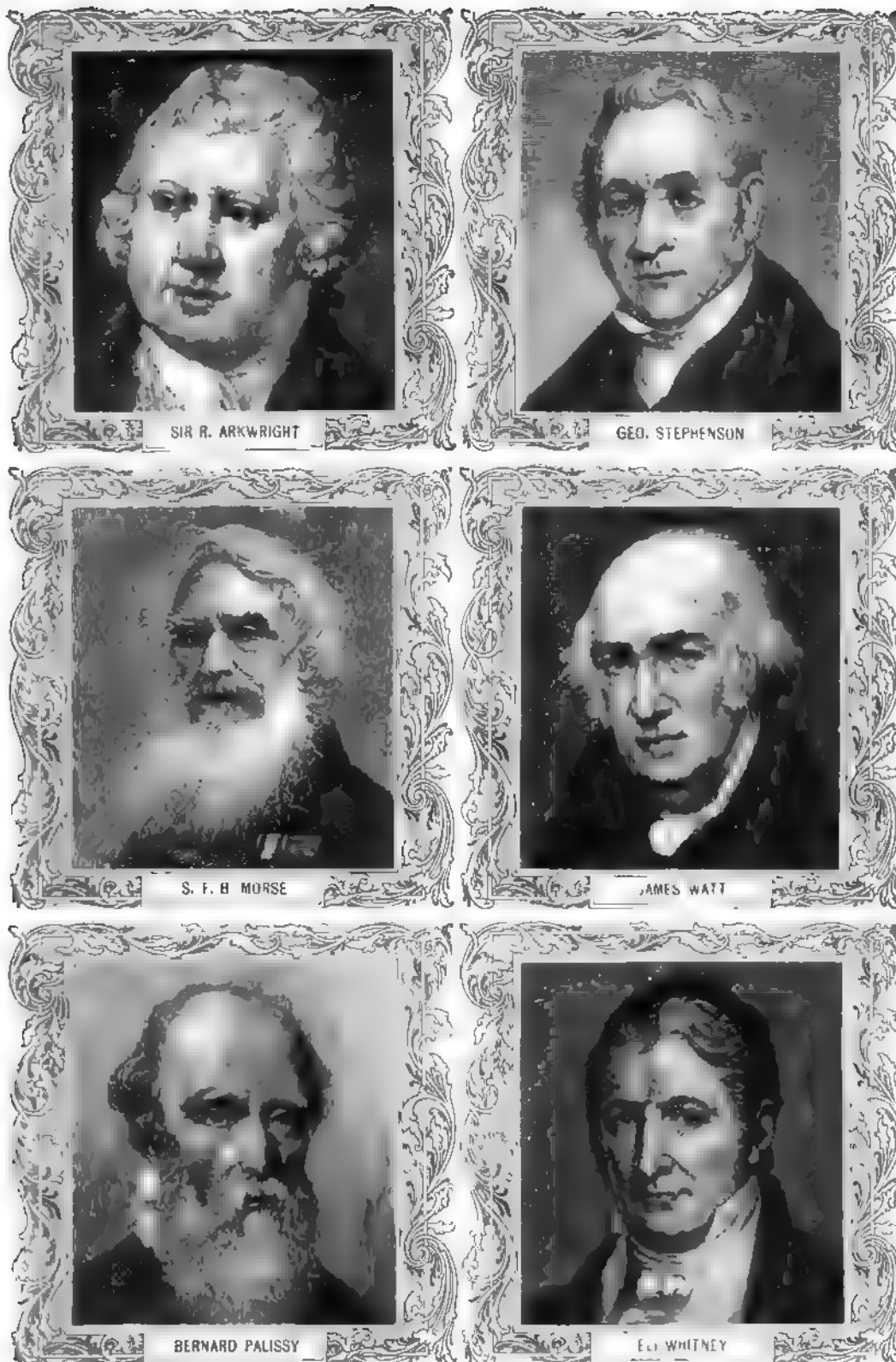
Pitt exerted his great genius to advance the material wealth and industry of England. His measures were eminently successful, and under his wise administration England commenced that wonderful advance of prosperity which has made her the leading manufacturing and commercial nation of the world—"the workshop of the world."

England made wonderful progress during this period. Her population more than doubled during the eighteenth century, and her advance in wealth was even greater than her growth in population. The War of American Independence had added a hundred million pounds to the national debt, but this burden was scarcely felt. England's commerce with America was greater since the war than it had been when the United States were English colonies.

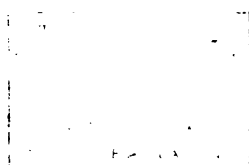
During the first half of the eighteenth century the cotton trade, the chief seat of which was Manchester, had only risen from the value of twenty thousand pounds to that of forty thousand pounds; and the hand-loom was of the same primitive shape as the hand-looms of India at the present day. But three successive inventions in ten years—that of the spinning-jenny by the weaver James Hargreaves in 1764, that of the spinning-frame by the barber Richard Arkwright in 1768, and that of the mule by the weaver Crompton in 1776—made Lancashire a hive of industry.

At the time of the accession of George III. to the British throne, in 1760, the entire linen trade of Scotland was less in value than the cloth trade of Yorkshire; but before the end of his reign Glasgow was rapidly becoming one of the commercial emporiums of the world. The potteries which Josiah Wedgwood established in 1763, and in which he profited by the genius of Flaxman, soon surpassed those of Holland or France. Before the lapse of twenty years, more than twenty thousand potters were employed in Staffordshire alone.

The means of communication had hitherto been of the rudest kind. The roads were generally so wretched that all cheap or rapid transit was impossible, and the cotton bales of Manchester were conveyed to Liverpool or Bristol on pack-horses. But the rapid development of manufactures led to a corresponding improvement in the means of communication throughout England. Canals were constructed between the prominent points of the kingdom, and England was covered with a network of splendid highways.



GREAT INVENTORS.



In 1761 the engineering skill of James Brindley connected Manchester with Liverpool by a canal which crossed the Irwell on a lofty aqueduct, and it was the success of this experiment which soon led to the universal introduction of transportation by water. Canals joined the Trent with the Mersey, the Thames with the Trent, and the Forth with the Clyde.

The cheapness of the new method of transit, no less than the great progress in engineering science, caused a great development of English collieries; and coal became one of the chief articles exported from England. The value of coal as a means of producing mechanical force was disclosed in 1765 in the discovery by which the Scotchman James Watt transformed the steam engine into the most wonderful instrument which human industry has ever had at its command.

The same energy and enterprise was displayed in the agricultural progress of the country. During the eighteenth century a fourth part of England was reclaimed from waste and brought under cultivation. At the time of the Revolution of 1688 more than half of the kingdom consisted of moorland and forest and fen, while the greater part of England north of the Humber was covered with vast commons and wastes; but the many inclosure bills which commenced with the reign of George II., and which particularly marked that of George III., changed the entire face of the country. Under the operation of these bills, ten thousand square miles of untilled land have been added to the area of land under tillage; while in the cultivated land itself the production had been more than doubled by the growth of agriculture which commenced with the travels and treatises of Arthur Young, the introduction of the system of large farms by Mr. Coke of Norfolk, and the development of scientific tillage in the valleys of Lothian.

Among the books which exerted the greatest effects upon mankind was Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*. Adam Smith was an Oxford scholar and a Glasgow pro-

fessor. In his famous book he contended that labor is the one source of wealth, and that it is by freedom of labor, by suffering the worker to pursue his own interest in his own way, that the national wealth can be promoted to the best advantage. He maintained that any effort to force labor into artificial channels, to shape the course of commerce by means of laws, to promote special branches of industry in particular countries, or to fix the character of the intercourse between one country and another, is not only wrong to the worker or the merchant, but also really injurious to the wealth of the nation.

The *Wealth of Nations* was published in 1776, and was studied by the younger Pitt during his career as an undergraduate at Cambridge. Thenceforth he followed Adam Smith's teachings. No sooner had Pitt become Prime Minister than he made the principles of the *Wealth of Nations* the groundwork of his economical policy. The first ten years of his long administration were characterized by a new departure in English statesmanship. The second William Pitt was the first English statesman who really comprehended the part that industry was to exercise in promoting the welfare of the world. He was not only a peace Minister and a financier like Sir Robert Walpole; but he was also a statesman who perceived that the freedom and development of commercial intercourse between nations was the best security for peace; that public economy not only diminished the public burdens, but also left additional capital in the hands of industry; and that finance might be turned from a mere means of raising revenue into a powerful engine of political and social improvement.

Pitt's failure to carry these principles into effect was partly attributable to the mass of ignorance and prejudice with which he had to contend, and still more to the sudden interruption of his plans through the French Revolution. His power depended mainly on the trading classes of England; and these classes still regarded gold and silver as wealth, and considered commerce as best pro-

moted by jealous monopolies. Only by patience and dexterity were the mob of merchants and country squires who supported Pitt in the House of Commons induced to consent to the reforms and innovations which he proposed. The failure of the first great measure which he introduced showed how small his power was when it struggled with the prejudices around him.

We have seen that the question of Parliamentary reform had been proposed before the War of American Independence, and that the elder Pitt, as Earl of Chatham, had advocated an increase of county members, who were then the most independent part of the House of Commons. The Duke of Richmond at that time talked of universal suffrage, equal electoral districts and annual Parliaments. Wilkes proposed to disfranchise the rotten boroughs and to give members in their stead to the counties and to the more populous and wealthy towns.

The second William Pitt had made the subject his own by proposing reform when he first entered the House of Commons; and one of his first measures was the introduction of a bill in 1785 which disfranchised thirty-six rotten boroughs at once and transferred their members to the counties, while providing for the gradual extinction of the remaining decayed boroughs. He induced King George III. to abstain from opposition, and endeavored to buy off the borough-mongers, or holders of rotten boroughs, by offering to compensate them for the seats which they lost at their market value.

But the bulk of Pitt's own party joined the bulk of the Whigs in steadily resisting his reform bill. The more glaring abuses within Parliament itself had mainly ceased to exist—the abuses which had aroused the elder Pitt and John Wilkes. Edmund Burke's Bill of Economical Reform had inflicted a fatal blow at the influence which the king exercised by abolishing a multitude of unnecessary offices, household appointments, and judicial and diplomatic charges, which were maintained for the sole purpose of corruption. The late triumph of public opinion had likewise con-

tributed vastly to dispel any actual peril from the opposition hitherto manifested by Parliament to the voice of the English people. Wilberforce tells us that Pitt was "terribly disappointed and beat" by the rejection of his reform bill; but the sentiment of the House of Commons and of the nation was too plain to be mistaken, and he never again proposed his measure, though his opinion remained unaltered.

The second Pitt's financial measures were eminently successful. The public credit was almost ruined when he entered office. The national debt had been doubled by the War of American Independence, but large sums still remained unfunded; while the public revenue was reduced by a gigantic system of smuggling which made every coast town a nest of robbers. Pitt met the deficiency by new taxes, but the time thus gained served to change the entire aspect of public affairs. Though Pitt's first financial measure—his revival of the plan for gradually paying off the public debt by a sinking fund, which Sir Robert Walpole had discarded—was a mistake, it restored public confidence. Pitt put a stop to smuggling by a reduction of custom-duties, thus making the smuggling trade unprofitable. He revived Walpole's plan of an excise.

In the meantime Pitt's measures reduced the public expenses, and commissions were repeatedly appointed to introduce economy into every department of the public service. The rapid development of the national industry contributed to the success of Pitt's financial measures. Credit was restored, and the smuggling trade was vastly diminished. In two years there was a surplus of a million pounds in the national treasury; and, though the duties were gradually abolished, the public revenue steadily increased with every reduction of taxation.

In the meantime Pitt was showing the political value of the new finance. France was considered England's natural enemy. Ireland, then as now, was the sore spot on the British body-politic. Says Green: "The tyrannous misgovernment under which she had groaned ever since the battle of the

Boyne was producing its natural fruit." The unhappy country was distracted with political faction, religious feuds and peasant conspiracies. As we have seen, the attitude of the Protestant party in Ireland had become so threatening during the War of American Independence that the British Parliament was obliged to relinquish its control over the Irish Parliament at Dublin.

Pitt perceived that much of the misery and disloyalty of Ireland resulted from its poverty. The population of Ireland had grown rapidly, but culture remained stationary and commerce was ruined. And much of this Irish poverty directly resulted from unjust law. Ireland was a grazing country, but the import of Irish cattle into England was forbidden in order to protect the interests of English graziers. Irish manufacturers were burdened with duties in order to protect the interests of English clothiers and weavers.

Pitt's first financial effort was intended to redress the wrongs of Ireland resulting from the English tariff laws, and the bill which he introduced in 1785 removed every obstacle to free trade between England and Ireland. He asserted that the passage of the measure by the British Parliament would "draw what remained of the shattered empire together," and partially repair England's loss in the independence of her colonies in North America by creating a loyal and prosperous Ireland.

Although Pitt struggled almost alone in face of a fierce opposition from the Whigs and the Manchester merchants, he succeeded in securing its passage by the British Parliament only to have it rejected by the Irish Parliament, which was then ruled by the Protestant faction under Grattan.

But Pitt's failure in his efforts for free trade between England and Ireland only encouraged him to a greater effort in another direction; and his commercial treaty with France in 1787 enabled the subjects of either kingdom to reside and travel in the other without license or passport, dispensed with the prohibitory restrictions of trade on both sides, and reduced all import duties.

But the spirit of humanity which was exemplified by Pitt's measures of commercial freedom assumed a wider scope. The trial of Warren Hastings by the House of Lords was arousing England to a more vivid sympathy with her Hindoo subjects, and in 1788 the new philanthropy directed by William Wilberforce united with the religious spirit created by the brothers John and Charles Wesley in an attack on the iniquitous slave-trade.

At the time of the Peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the privilege of carrying negroes from the coast of Africa to sell them as laborers in the European colonies in America and the West Indies had been regarded as some of the gains reaped by England in the War of the Spanish Succession; but the horrors and iniquity of the traffic, the ruin and degradation of the native tribes of America which resulted therefrom, and the oppression of the negro himself, were now widely and deeply felt.

In 1788, "after a conversation in the open air at the root of an old tree at Holwood, just above the steep descent into the vale of Keston," Pitt encouraged his friend William Wilberforce, whose position as the Parliamentary representative of the Evangelical party gave prestige to his championship of so noble a cause, to introduce a bill for the abolition of the infamous slave-trade; but, notwithstanding Pitt's ardent support, Wilberforce's bill of 1788 was rejected by Parliament through the opposition of the Liverpool slave-merchants and through the general indifference of the House of Commons.

In the meantime the great extension of the British colonies gave a fresh stimulus to the spirit of maritime discovery, and English navigators penetrated into the remotest seas. Captain Phipps had made an ineffectual effort to discover a north-west passage to India in the early part of the reign of George III.; while Byron, Wallis, Carteret and Cook successively circumnavigated the globe, and discovered several new islands in the Pacific Ocean. Captain Cook discovered the Hawaiian Islands, in the

North Pacific Ocean, in 1778, and was killed there in a contest with the natives in 1779. These islands were named the *Sandwich Islands*, in honor of Lord Sandwich, the First Lord of the Admiralty in Lord North's Ministry.

Captain Cook's three voyages aroused a spirit of enterprise almost equal to that awakened by the great discoveries of Columbus. The South Sea Islands soon became as well known in England as the islands of the Mediterranean, and their natural productions speedily constituted articles of commerce. Captain Cook himself suggested the expediency of forming a settlement on the coast of the vast island of New Holland, or Australia, the largest island of the world; and in 1786 Mr. Pitt's government resolved to transport convicts thither and give them an opportunity to retrieve their characters and reform their habits in that distant part of the world. The settlers there reformed, and became good colonists; and Australia, which has long ceased to be a penal colony, has outgrown the fostering care of the mother country and become one of England's most flourishing possessions, thus planting Anglo-Saxon liberty and civilization in that distant part of the globe.

In 1786 an insane woman named Margaret Nicholson made an attempt to assassinate King George III., as he was alighting from his carriage; but she was immediately seized, and the king remarked: "Don't hurt the poor woman; she must be mad." Her insanity being fully proven, she was sent to Bethlehem hospital, where she was kept securely guarded but unmolested.

In 1788 King George III. had a temporary attack of insanity, and of course the crisis demanded a regency. Mr. Fox insisted that the regency rightfully belonged to the Prince of Wales, while Mr. Pitt as vehemently asserted that Parliament alone could provide for such an emergency. After some spirited debates early in 1789, it was finally agreed that the Prince of Wales should be declared regent, but subject to some restrictions, and that the custody of the king's person should be in-

trusted to the queen, assisted by a council.

The Parliament of Ireland declared the Prince of Wales regent without any restriction whatever. This difference between the two Parliaments showed the weakness of the federal union between Great Britain and Ireland; and serious consequences might have followed but for the king's unexpected recovery, which thus dispensed with the necessity for a regency. From that time Pitt seemed to have resolved on uniting the two Parliaments. The king's recovery was hailed with joy throughout the kingdom, and was celebrated with splendid illuminations.

In 1789 the great French Revolution broke out—a revolution which was destined to change the face of the world and to involve England in a long but not inglorious war. The Puritan movement of the seventeenth century had finally checked the general tendency of the time to religious and political despotism in England. The Revolution of 1688 had practically established freedom of conscience and the English people's right to govern themselves through their representatives in Parliament. Social equality had begun in England long before. All Englishmen, from the highest to the lowest, were governed and protected by the same laws.

The English aristocracy, though exercising a powerful influence on the government, had few social privileges, and were prevented from constituting a separate class in the nation by the Law of Primogeniture and the social tradition which assigned all but the eldest son of a noble family to the rank of commoners. The gentry and the commercial classes were not separated from each other by any impassible barrier, and neither of these two classes possessed any privileges which could separate them from the lower classes of English society. After a short struggle, public opinion, the general sense of educated Englishmen, had become the dominant element in the English government.

It was, however, different in all the countries of Continental Europe. In those

lands the wars of religion resulting from the Reformation had left nothing but the name of freedom, and government there tended to a pure despotism. Privilege was supreme in religion, in politics, in society. Society itself in those countries rested on a rigid division of classes from one another, denying to the masses of the people any equal rights of justice or of industry. We have observed in a preceding section how incompatible such ideas of national life were with the notions which the wide diffusion of intelligence was spreading throughout Europe during the last half of the eighteenth century. We have also observed that in most of the countries of Continental Europe efforts were made by enlightened statesmen and sovereigns to redress existing wrongs by administrative reforms.

We shall afterward note in the history of the French Revolution how the political condition of France brought about the great crisis which was to overturn social and political institutions which had stood the test of a thousand years—how the aristocracy and the monarchy were overthrown, how the First French Republic was established, and how the French king's execution involved the new Republic in a general struggle with the crowned heads of Europe.

The French Revolution was viewed in England with quite different feelings by the two great parties in that country. While one party considered it the triumph of constitutional liberty, the Ministry and a large part of the English aristocracy regarded it as the triumph of anarchy over all legitimate and constituted authority. These feelings were not confined to the higher classes of English society, as the English masses shared largely in the hatred to the movement in France. In London a dinner to celebrate the capture of the Bastille by the Paris mob was adjourned through fear of popular resentment; and in Birmingham a festive meeting to commemorate the same event was dispersed by a furious mob, which afterward proceeded to destroy the chapels of Dissenters and the houses of all sympathizers with the French

Revolution. A furious mob burned the house, library and valuable apparatus of the great scientist and Unitarian divine Joseph Priestley because of his sympathy with this great popular rising in a neighboring kingdom. Priestley emigrated to the United States in 1794, and settled at Northumberland, Pennsylvania, where he died in 1804, and where his remains were interred.

The destruction of the Bastille by the Paris mob, July 14, 1789, created great joy everywhere. Charles James Fox exclaimed with a burst of enthusiasm: "How much is this the greatest event that ever happened in the world, and how much the best!" The Whigs sided with their leader in his sympathy with the French Revolution; while the Tories adhered to Pitt, who looked with characteristic coolness and indifference upon the approach of the French to sentiments of liberty which had long been familiar to England.

For the time Pitt's attention was occupied with schemes to defend Poland and Turkey against the ruthless ambition of the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia, and for this purpose he entered into an alliance with Prussia and Holland; but, as a war with Russia was unpopular in Great Britain, Pitt was not sustained in his Russian policy by Parliament, and was therefore obliged to discontinue his armaments; while Prussia joined Russia in a new attack on the independence of Poland in 1792, after the Peace of Jassey between Russia and Turkey.

In 1790 Great Britain became involved in a dispute with Spain about the possession of Nootka Sound, on the Pacific coast of North America, where an English settlement had been planted, which was seized by the Spaniards, who made the settlers prisoners. Great Britain quickly prepared an armament at the cost of three million pounds sterling; but, as Spain was unprepared for war, the dispute was soon adjusted by negotiation.

In 1790 the East India Company became involved in a new war with Tippoo Saib,

Sultan of Mysore. In 1791 and 1792 he was completely defeated before his capital, Seringapatam, by Lord Cornwallis, then Governor-General of British India; and in 1792 he was obliged to purchase peace by the cession of a considerable part of his territories to the East India Company and by the payment of a large war-indemnity, giving his sons as hostages for the fulfillment of the conditions of the treaty.

As we have seen, Charles James Fox, as the leader of the Whigs, openly sympathized with the French Revolution; while Prime Minister Pitt, who was a peace man, and was sustained by the Tories, regarded the Revolution with unconcern. Though the desertion of Pitt by the Whigs had driven him out of the Whig party and obliged him to accept the support of the Tories, thus virtually making him the leader of the Tory party, he did not share the distrust of the French Revolution which was felt by the Tories in general. Pitt, being a peaceful statesman, was unfitted for the direction of a great war; and he struggled hard to prevent Great Britain from becoming involved in a war with Revolutionary France. In January, 1790, he expressed the opinion that "the present convulsions in France must sooner or later culminate in general harmony and regular order," and that when French freedom is established "France will stand forth as one of the most brilliant powers of Europe."

But Pitt's coolness and good-will toward the French Revolution was not shared by all his Tory followers. The cautious good-sense of the majority of Englishmen, their love of law and order, their aversion to violent changes and abstract theories, and their reverence for the past, were fast creating throughout England a dislike for the revolutionary changes in progress in France. This English dislike was slowly developing into fear and hatred through the impassioned eloquence of Edmund Burke, whose conservatism and love for order and for established institutions made him one of the most inveterate foes of the French Revolution.

Edmund Burke had come to London forty years before, a poor and unknown Irish adventurer. His learning gained for him the friendship of the great literary leader, Dr. Samuel Johnson, and of the great painter, Sir Joshua Reynolds; but natural inclination drew Burke to politics, and the poor Irish youth became secretary to the Marquis of Rockingham, under whose patronage he was elected to the British House of Commons in 1765. Like the elder William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, and like John Wilkes, Colonel Barre, Charles James Fox and Lord Camden—prominent as Whig leaders in Parliament—Edmund Burke was a friend and champion of the Anglo-American colonists in their opposition to Parliamentary taxation of the colonies, sustaining their stand of "no taxation without representation." His speeches against the Stamp Act and the policy of Lord North's Ministry toward the Americans before and during the War of American Independence soon gained for him the fame of an orator. Said Charles James Fox, concerning Burke's oratory: "I have learned more from him than from all the books I ever read."

But Burke's eloquence, which had vied with that of the elder Pitt during the Parliamentary debates on the Stamp Act, at length became distasteful to the majority of the members of the House of Commons, because of the length of his speeches, the profound and philosophical character of his arguments, the splendor and frequent extravagance of his illustrations, his passionate earnestness, his lack of temper and discretion; and eventually the wearied and perplexed merchants and squires left their seats in the House of Commons whenever he rose to speak, so that he came to be known as "the dinner-bell of the House." Burke's prominent part in the impeachment and trial of Warren Hastings for a time gave scope to his energies, and the grandeur of his appeals to the justice of England in her treatment of India silenced detraction; but after the close of the impeachment his repute had again fallen, and as he was now past sixty years of age it seemed

the part of wisdom that he should retire from an assembly where he stood unpopular and alone. Richard Brinsley Sheridan, another young Irishman, also became a member of the British House of Commons, and distinguished himself during the trial of Warren Hastings by his oratory; and, besides being a great statesman and Parliamentary orator, he also acquired renown as a lawyer and a dramatist.

Burke's sense of justice and hatred of oppression had made him the friend of the Americans in their opposition to Parliamentary taxation, and the champion of the rights of the Hindoos against the extortion and tyranny of Warren Hastings; but his innate conservatism, his reverence for the past and for the sanctity of established institutions, his veneration for law and order, his hatred of anarchy and social chaos, made him the most inveterate foe of the French Revolution. It was this feeling which led him to oppose Pitt's measures of Parliamentary reform. He looked upon the Revolution of 1688 as having closed for all time a great era of national progress which had moved on "from precedent to precedent."

To sustain his position, Burke quoted a declaration made by the Convention-Parliament of 1689 to William and Mary in these words: "The Lords Temporal and Spiritual, and Commons, do, in the name of the people aforesaid, most humbly and faithfully submit themselves, their heirs and posterity forever." Burke also quoted another act of Parliament of the reign of William and Mary, the terms of which he said "bind us, our heirs and our posterity to them, their heirs and posterity to the end of time." Burke further said that "if the people of England possessed such a right before the Revolution, yet that the English nation did at the time of the Revolution most solemnly renounce and abdicate it for themselves and for all their posterity forever."

Said Burke: "The equilibrium of the Constitution has something so delicate about it that the least displacement may destroy

it." He went on to say: "It is a difficult and dangerous matter even to touch so complicated a machine." In a speech on the Canadian Constitution bill Burke said, concerning the United States: "America never dreamed of such absurd doctrine as the rights of man."

Burke's theory made him hostile to all movement whatever, and he passionately sustained the helpless inaction of the Whigs. He ardently admired the Marquis of Rockingham, an honest and upright man, but the weakest of party leaders. Burke sought to check Parliamentary corruption by his bill in 1782 providing for civil retrenchment, but he led in defeating all plans for Parliamentary reform. He was the one man in England who understood with Pitt the value of free industry; but he nevertheless bitterly opposed Pitt's proposals to give free trade to Ireland, and also ardently disapproved of Pitt's commercial treaty with France in 1787. He sustained the policy of inaction and timid content which the Whigs had inherited from Sir Robert Walpole. His intense belief in the natural development of a nation rendered him incapable of understanding that any good could result from particular laws or special reforms.

The storming of the Bastille by the Paris mob, which kindled such enthusiasm in Fox, filled Burke with apprehension and alarm. Said he: "Whenever a separation is made between liberty and justice neither is safe." While Pitt was predicting a glorious future for the French Constitution, Burke asserted: "The French—the French have shown themselves the ablest architects of ruin who have hitherto existed in the world. In a short space of time they have pulled to the ground their army, their navy, their commerce, their arts and their manufactures."

But Burke at this time stood alone in Parliament; as the Whigs followed Fox in his applause of the French Revolution, while the Tories distrustfully followed Pitt, who warmly expressed his sympathy with the constitutional government which had just been established in France. While

Pitt was striving for friendship between Great Britain and Revolutionary France, Burke was resolved to make such friendship impossible. As he stood alone in the House of Commons and as Parliament paid no attentions to his passionate appeals, he appealed to his country through his pen; and his work entitled *Reflections on the French Revolution*, which he published in October, 1790, not only denounced the violent popular uprising which had swept away the Church and nobility of France, destroyed the ordered structure of classes and ranks, established a constitution founded on the doctrine of social equality, rudely demolished and reconstituted a state, threatened the whole social fabric with ruin, and thus inaugurated a revolution founded on scorn for the past; but he denounced the very principles from which this great change had sprung—this embodiment of all that he hated.

Burke's deep sense of the grandeur of social order, of the value of permanence and stability in human institutions, "without which men would become like flies in a summer," made him blind to everything but dread of popular revolt. He obstinately refused to see any abuses in the past, as the past had now been wiped out; and he perceived nothing but ruin and chaos for society in the future. He therefore preached a crusade against the Revolutionists of France, whom he considered the enemies of religion, of civilization, of social order, and called upon the crowned heads of Europe to employ their armies in crushing a revolution whose principles threatened every state of Europe with utter ruin.

Burke found a great obstacle to such a crusade in Pitt; and one of the grandest outbursts of his *Reflections on the French Revolution* ended with this bitter taunt at the peaceful Prime Minister: "The age of Chivalry is gone; that of sophisters, economists and calculators has succeeded, and the glory of Europe is extinguished forever." But Pitt was not moved from his course by taunts or invective; and at the very time of the appearance of Burke's *Reflections on the*

French Revolution he again assured France of his resolve not to take any part in a crusade against the Revolution, expressing his determination thus in writing: "This country means to persevere in the neutrality hitherto scrupulously observed with respect to the internal dissensions of France, and from which it will never depart unless the conduct held there make it indispensable as an act of self-defense."

So little did Pitt share in the apprehensions of some of his Tory followers as to the effect of the French Revolution on the stability of English institutions that in 1791 he supported Mr. Fox in his *Libel Act*, which completed the freedom of the press in Great Britain by transferring the decision on what was libelous in any publication from the judge to the jury. In 1791 Pitt himself put aside the dread which had been aroused in England by the War of American Independence by carrying a bill through the House of Commons conceding the right of self-government to the two Canadas by giving each of them a House of Assembly and a Council. Said Fox, who heartily supported this measure: "I am convinced that the only method of retaining distant colonies with advantage is to enable them to govern themselves." Pitt's policy and Fox's foresight have been justified by the subsequent history of the British dependencies. Mr. Wilberforce's motion for the abolition of the slave-trade was again rejected by Parliament by a considerable majority.

Burke was no more successful with his own party, the Whigs; as Fox remained an ardent supporter of the French Revolution, and replied to another attack of Burke upon it with more than his usual warmth. Hitherto these two statesmen had entertained the most ardent affection for each other, but Burke's fanaticism declared it at an end. Fox exclaimed with a sudden burst of tears: "There is no loss of friendship!" Burke responded: "There is. I know the price of my conduct. Our friendship is at an end."

Burke stood wholly alone in Parliament.

Appeal from the Old to the New Whigs, 1791, did not detach a follower Fox. Pitt coldly advised Burke to the English Constitution rather than the French. Burke wrote sadly to French princes, who had fled from their country and were raising an army at Coblenz.

"I have made many enemies and friends by the part I have taken."

English public opinion was slowly turning to Burke's side, as the sentiment of Englishmen was echoed by the sale of thousands of copies of his *Reflections on the French Revolution*. England was in no way to appreciate the mighty political and upheaval across the English Channel, but her temper was industrial above everything else. Men who were working hard for growing rich, who had the narrow and practical turn of business men, were angry at the Revolution's disturbance of social order, its restless and vague activity, its emotional appeals to human emotion, its abstract and frequently empty theories. England was at this time blessed with political stability and social well-being, with steady economic progress and a powerful religious faith; and Englishmen failed to perceive the very element of this content, of this peace of this peaceful and harmonious life, of this reconciliation of society and religion, was lacking in other lands.

The general sympathy which the French Revolution had at first excited in England had changed to disgust in consequence of the violence of the legislative changes in France, the anarchy of that country, the bankruptcy of its treasury, and the growing power of the Paris mob. English sympathy for the Revolution was soon confined to a few groups of reformers who gathered in "Constitutional Clubs," and whose recklessness simply hastened the national ruin. But notwithstanding Burke's appeal, and the cries of the emigrant nobles in France who had sought refuge outside their country and who longed to invade it, other nations of Europe hesitated to go to war on the Revolution, and Pitt persisted in his attitude of neutrality.

Pitt was anxious for the restoration of tranquillity in France in order to protect Poland and Turkey from the grasping ambition of the Empress Catharine the Great of Russia. He accordingly frustrated a plan of the emigrant nobles of France for a descent on the French coast, and formally announced at Vienna that Great Britain would maintain a strict neutrality in case of war between Revolutionary France and the German Empire. But the Emperor Leopold II. was as anxious to remain at peace with France as was England's Prime Minister himself. After her Peace of Jassy with Turkey, in January, 1792, Russia's great Empress desired to plunge Austria and Prussia in war with France in order to leave her free to annex the whole of Poland to her dominions; but the Austrian and Prussian monarchs would now allow their hands to be thus tied.

But the progress of events rendered the continuance of peace impossible, as the emigrant nobles had raised an army on the Rhine; and in April, 1792, Revolutionary France declared war against Austria and Prussia. Pitt still determined to hold England neutral; and in 1792 he announced a reduction of the military forces of Great Britain, and brought forward a peace budget in Parliament resting on a large remission of taxation.

But the maintenance of peace between England and France became more impossible daily; as the French Revolutionists were striving to arouse the Constitutional Clubs in England to excite the same revolutionary spirit in that country that existed in France, in order to procure the alliance of the English people in the war with Austria and Prussia. Chauvelin, the French ambassador in England, boldly protested against a proclamation which denounced this seditious correspondence. Even Fox now declared that the discussion of Parliamentary reform was inexpedient in such an emergency.

In the meantime Burke was exerting himself to his utmost by his pen to spread alarm throughout Europe at the violence of the

Pitt was striving for friendship between Great Britain and Revolutionary France, Burke was resolved to make such friendship impossible. As he stood alone in the House of Commons and as Parliament paid no attentions to his passionate appeals, he appealed to his country through his pen; and his work entitled *Reflections on the French Revolution*, which he published in October, 1790, not only denounced the violent popular uprising which had swept away the Church and nobility of France, destroyed the ordered structure of classes and ranks, established a constitution founded on the doctrine of social equality, rudely demolished and reconstituted a state, threatened the whole social fabric with ruin, and thus inaugurated a revolution founded on scorn for the past; but he denounced the very principles from which this great change had sprung—this embodiment of all that he hated.

Burke's deep sense of the grandeur of social order, of the value of permanence and stability in human institutions, "without which men would become like flies in a summer," made him blind to everything but dread of popular revolt. He obstinately refused to see any abuses in the past, as the past had now been wiped out; and he perceived nothing but ruin and chaos for society in the future. He therefore preached a crusade against the Revolutionists of France, whom he considered the enemies of religion, of civilization, of social order, and called upon the crowned heads of Europe to employ their armies in crushing a revolution whose principles threatened every state of Europe with utter ruin.

Burke found a great obstacle to such a crusade in Pitt; and one of the grandest outbursts of his *Reflections on the French Revolution* ended with this bitter taunt at the peaceful Prime Minister: "The age of Chivalry is gone; that of sophisters, economists and calculators has succeeded, and the glory of Europe is extinguished forever." But Pitt was not moved from his course by taunts or invective; and at the very time of the appearance of Burke's *Reflections on the*

French Revolution he again assured France of his resolve not to take any part in a crusade against the Revolution, expressing his determination thus in writing: "This country means to persevere in the neutrality hitherto scrupulously observed with respect to the internal dissensions of France, and from which it will never depart unless the conduct held there make it indispensable as an act of self-defense."

So little did Pitt share in the apprehensions of some of his Tory followers as to the effect of the French Revolution on the stability of English institutions that in 1791 he supported Mr. Fox in his *Libel Act*, which completed the freedom of the press in Great Britain by transferring the decision on what was libelous in any publication from the judge to the jury. In 1791 Pitt himself put aside the dread which had been aroused in England by the War of American Independence by carrying a bill through the House of Commons conceding the right of self-government to the two Canadas by giving each of them a House of Assembly and a Council. Said Fox, who heartily supported this measure: "I am convinced that the only method of retaining distant colonies with advantage is to enable them to govern themselves." Pitt's policy and Fox's foresight have been justified by the subsequent history of the British dependencies. Mr. Wilberforce's motion for the abolition of the slave-trade was again rejected by Parliament by a considerable majority.

Burke was no more successful with his own party, the Whigs; as Fox remained an ardent supporter of the French Revolution, and replied to another attack of Burke upon it with more than his usual warmth. Hitherto these two statesmen had entertained the most ardent affection for each other, but Burke's fanaticism declared it at an end. Fox exclaimed with a sudden burst of tears: "There is no loss of friendship!" Burke responded: "There is. I know the price of my conduct. Our friendship is at an end."

Burke stood wholly alone in Parliament.

His *Appeal from the Old to the New Whigs*, in June, 1791, did not detach a follower from Fox. Pitt coldly advised Burke to praise the English Constitution rather than rail at the French. Burke wrote sadly to the French princes, who had fled from their country and were raising an army at Coblenz: "I have made many enemies and few friends by the part I have taken."

But English public opinion was slowly drifting to Burke's side, as the sentiment of Englishmen was echoed by the sale of thirty thousand copies of his *Reflections on the French Revolution*. England was in no mood to appreciate the mighty political and social upheaval across the English Channel, as her temper was industrial above everything else. Men who were working hard and growing rich, who had the narrow and practical turn of business men, were angry at the Revolution's disturbance of social order, its restless and vague activity, its rhetorical appeals to human emotion, its abstract and frequently empty theories. England was at this time blessed with political content and social well-being, with steady economic progress and a powerful religious revival; and Englishmen failed to perceive that every element of this content, of this order, of this peaceful and harmonious progress, of this reconciliation of society with religion, was lacking in other lands.

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In the meantime Burke was exerting himself to his utmost by his pen to spread alarm throughout Europe at the violence of the

French Revolution. He had encouraged the French emigrant nobles from the first to take up arms against the Revolutionists, and had sent his son to join them at Coblenz. He wrote to them: "Be alarmists; diffuse terror!" But their conduct and the Austro-Prussian invasion of France in July, 1792, produced a revolutionary "Reign of Terror" in France, which ended in the bloodiest insurrections and massacres in Paris, the overthrow of the monarchy, the establishment of the First French Republic, and the complete triumph of the Paris mob and the Paris Commune.

The defeat and retreat of the Austro-Prussian invaders from France, and the invasion of the Austrian Netherlands by the triumphant French, encouraged the French National Convention to declare that France offered the aid of her armies to all nations that would strive for freedom, its president saying: "All governments are our enemies; all peoples are our allies." The action of Revolutionary France in violating treaties signed with England only two years before by invading Holland rendered England's participation in the war inevitable.

Public opinion in England was pressing harder upon Pitt daily. The horror of the Reign of Terror in France and the despotism of the Paris mob had done more to estrange English sympathy from the French Revolution than all Burke's eloquence had done. But Pitt obstinately struggled for peace even after the withdrawal of the British ambassador from Paris upon the overthrow and imprisonment of King Louis XVI. England's Prime Minister had hindered Holland from joining Austria and Prussia in the war against Revolutionary France. He hoped to end the war through England's mediation, and, as he expressed it, to "leave France, which I believe is the best way, to arrange its own internal affairs as it can."

The greatest hour of Pitt's life was when he stood alone in England for the preservation of peace, and refused to yield to the growing popular demand for war with Revolutionary France. The news of the Sep-

tember massacres only induced Pitt to express the hope that the French would refrain from a war of conquest and escape from their social anarchy. In October, 1792, the French ambassador in England reported that Pitt was about to recognize the French Republic. At the opening of November he still urged Holland to remain neutral in the war.

But the aggressive action of France left Pitt no other alternative than war. The decree of the French National Convention and the French invasion of Holland rendered England's participation in the war inevitable, as it was impossible for England to desert her ally. Even in December, 1792, Pitt made a last effort for peace, on the eve of the Second Partition of Poland. He offered to aid Austria to acquire Bavaria if she would make peace with France, and pledged himself to France to remain at peace with her if she would respect the territory of her neighbors. But the French Revolutionists only interpreted his moderation as the result of fear, while the general mourning in England on the receipt of the news of the execution of King Louis XVI. showed the growing ardor of the English people for the inevitable struggle. Diplomacy between England and France was broken off; and France declared war against England and Holland in February, 1793, and two weeks later against Spain.

Pitt's power was at an end from the moment of the French Republic's declaration of war against England, though he remained Prime Minister with little intermission for the remaining thirteen years of his life. Though his pride, his immovable firmness and the general confidence of the British nation still kept him at the head of public affairs, he thenceforth drifted along with a tide of popular feeling which he never understood fully. He was unfitted for the conduct of a war by the very excellence of his character. He was actually a peace Minister, forced into war by a panic and enthusiasm which he shared in a very small degree, without his illustrious father's gift of at once entering into the sympathies and

passions of the English people, or of arousing their sympathies and passions in return.

Pitt's task at home politically was an easy one, as the British nation was united by its desire for war. Even the bulk of the Whigs, headed by the Duke of Portland, Lords Fitzwilliam and Spencer, and Mr. Wyndham, deserted Mr. Fox when he remained firm in his sympathy with Revolutionary France, and gave their support to the Ministry.

The violence of the French Revolution and the execution of King Louis XVI. had produced a coalition of almost all the crowned heads of Europe against the French Republic early in 1793, and their armies invaded France on all sides. As we shall describe the events of this war in the section on the French Revolution, we will merely state in this connection that the invasion was defeated on all the French frontiers and that the armies of the French Republic were everywhere successful, compelling the allies to retreat and to act on the defensive. But the British fleet under Lord Howe defeated the French navy off the western coast of France, June 1, 1794.

Pitt was earnest for peace, as he was without the means for prosecuting the war efficiently. The British army was small and without military experience, while its leaders were wholly incompetent. Lord Grenville, the British Minister of Foreign Affairs, wrote: "We have no general but some old woman in a red ribbon." Besides England's military weakness and defect, Pitt had other reasons for desiring the end of the war. He felt that the war was undoing all that he had done, impassive and inflexible as he appeared. The increase of the public burdens in England was dreadful. Although England had few soldiers she was the wealthiest nation of the world, and Pitt was obliged to utilize her wealth in the prosecution of the war. He made England the paymaster of the European coalition against Revolutionary France, and English subsidies brought the allied armies into the field. Pitt raised immense loans for this purpose, and for a war expenditure at home which was both

extravagant and unnecessary. The public debt of Great Britain was increased by leaps and bounds. Taxation, which under Pitt's peace administration had reached its lowest point, now attained a height before unknown.

The public suffering in England was increased by a general panic. Burke had only succeeded too well in his resolve to "diffuse the terror." The partisans of France and of republicanism in England were really only a few men who assembled conventions and called themselves citizens and patriots in imitation of the French Revolutionists. But the dread of revolution in England soon passed the limits of reason. Even Pitt, though still unaffected by the political reaction in England, was influenced by the alarm of social danger, and believed in the existence of "thousands of bandits" who were ready to rise against the British throne, to murder every landlord and to sack London. Said he to his niece who quoted to him Thomas Paine's *Rights of Man*, in which that author had vindicated the principles of the French Revolution. "Paine is no fool; he is perhaps right; but if I did what he wants, I should have thousands of bandits on my hands to-morrow, and London burned."

Pitt thus shared with Parliament and the British nation at large the belief in a social danger. The Ministry suspended the Habeas Corpus Act, while a new act of Parliament against seditious assemblies restricted the liberty of public meeting, and a wider scope was given to the Statute of Treasons. The Ministry directed frequent prosecutions against the press, while some Nonconformist clergymen were indicted for preaching seditious sermons, and conventions of sympathizers with Revolutionary France were roughly dispersed by the authorities. The worst excesses of this general panic were manifested in Scotland, where some young Whigs who merely advocated Parliamentary reform were sentenced to banishment, and where a brutal judge openly expressed his regret that the practice of torture in cases of sedition should have ceased.

But in England the social panic soon disappeared as suddenly as it had risen. In 1794 three leaders of the Corresponding Society, a body sympathizing with the French Revolution—Thelwall, Hardy and Horne Tooke—were brought to trial at the Old Bailey on a charge of high-treason, and were acquitted after a patient investigation of several days. The prisoners themselves acknowledged that they desired to effect great changes in the British Constitution, but it was clearly proven that they wished to obtain reform only by legal and constitutional methods and that they were opposed to violence and insurrection. Their acquittal showed that the terror in England was over.

In 1795, however, there were symptoms of discontent in different parts of England, in consequence of the ill-success of the war and the distress occasioned by the unprecedented taxation. The poor were goaded to riots by sheer want of bread. The people of London suffered intensely from the interruption of commerce occasioned by the war; and some of the lower classes, irritated by their protracted misery, assailed the king's carriage by pelting it with stones as His Majesty went in state to the House of Lords, October 29, 1795. But this outrage strengthened the Ministry; as Parliament, exasperated at the indignity thus offered to the sovereign, passed several acts for the suppression of sedition. These bills, which greatly restricted English freedom, were perhaps rendered necessary by the peculiar circumstances of the period.

In 1795 the Prince of Wales married his cousin, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick, in order to procure the payment of his debts; but soon after the birth of a daughter, early in 1796, the parents finally separated, never living together thereafter.

The defeats of the allies led to the dissolution of the European coalition against the French Republic in the spring of 1795, after the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands and Holland by the French armies. Prussia, Spain and the smaller allied powers made peace, thus leaving England and

Austria alone in the war against Revolutionary France.

Though military failure on the Continent of Europe, and panic and distress in England, had made Pitt anxious to end the war with Revolutionary France, he was almost alone in his desire for peace. The English people were still ardent for the continuance of the war; and their military ardor was intensified by Burke's *Letters on a Regicide Peace*, which denounced Pitt's effort to negotiate with the French Republic in 1796.

France was as ardent for the continuance of the war as England, in consequence of the brilliant victories of the youthful Napoleon Bonaparte over the Austrians in Italy; and after the Peace of Campo Formio between France and Austria, October 17, 1797, Great Britain alone remained at war with the French Republic. Spain and Holland had become allies of France and enemies of England.

At this time England's credit was at its lowest ebb, and the enormous expenses of the war exhausted the resources of Great Britain to such an extent that the Bank of England suspended specie payments early in 1797, thus giving rise to an issue of paper money. Two alarming mutinies broke out in the British navy at the same time, that at Spithead being settled by giving the seamen increased pay, but that at the Nore being only quelled by bloodshed and by the execution of the ringleaders.

In this dark hour of the struggle, in 1797, Burke died, protesting to the very last against peace with Revolutionary France; while Pitt opened fresh negotiations at Lille, but his efforts were again thwarted by the undying hatred of the two nations. A threat of French invasion ended the depression and disunion in England. Credit revived; and, in spite of the enormous taxation, a public subscription poured two million pounds into the national treasury toward the expenses of the war.

At the same time public confidence in England was restored by the victories of her navy—that of Admiral Sir John Jervis over the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent,

on the coast of Portugal, February 14, 1797; that of Admiral Duncan over the Dutch fleet at Camperdown, on the coast of Holland, October 11, 1797; and that of Admiral Nelson over the French fleet in the battle of the Nile, August 1, 1798, while pursuing Bonaparte in his expedition to Egypt.

In rejecting Pitt's peace offers, the French Republic had counted on an outbreak in Ireland against British authority in 1798, and on the new war which Tippoo Saib, Sultan of Mysore, began against the English in India. The Irish rising was crushed by British troops in a defeat of the rebels at Vinegar Hill in 1798; and the war in India was ended by the storming and capture of Seringapatam, the capital of Mysore, and by the death of Tippoo Saib, who fell in the defense of his capital, May 4, 1799; after which Mysore was annexed to the territories of the English East India Company.

The Governors-General of British India during this period were Sir John Shore, who succeeded Lord Cornwallis in 1793, and who was himself succeeded by Lord Cornwallis in 1796. Sir Alured Clarke became Governor-General in 1798, and the Earl of Mornington in the same year. Lord Cornwallis, who had in the meantime been Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and whose mild and merciful measures had contributed to restore tranquillity in that country after the rebellion of 1798, was made Governor-General of British India a third time in 1805; but he died during the same year near Benares.

Bonaparte's invasion of Egypt and Syria induced Mr. Pitt to unite Austria, Russia, Turkey and Naples with England in a second coalition against the French Republic in 1799; but after the Austrians and Russians had driven the French from Germany and Italy the coalition fell to pieces, and England and Austria only remained at war with France. The defeats of the Austrians at Marengo and Hohenlinden in 1800 led to the Peace of Luneville between France and Austria, February 9, 1801, leaving England again alone in the war against France.

But when Great Britain thus stood once more alone in the war with France, Pitt achieved his greatest political triumph in the Constitutional Union of Ireland with Great Britain. As we have seen, the Ministry of the Marquis of Rockingham in 1782 had granted the legislative independence of Ireland; and for the next eighteen years, A. D. 1782-1800, Ireland was independent of Great Britain in everything but its subjection to the British crown; but its independence was only a name for the uncontrollable rule of a few noble families.

The victory of the Protestant volunteers of Ireland had been won merely to the advantage of the "Parliamentary undertakers," who selected the majority of the members of the Irish House of Commons, while they themselves constituted the Irish House of Lords. Ireland was left at the mercy of these men by the suspension of control or interference from England, and they soon showed that they intended to keep to themselves the power which they thus possessed.

When the native Irish Catholics demanded admission to the franchise and to equal civil rights with the Protestants, as a reward for their assistance in the recent struggle for Irish legislative independence, their just claim was rejected by the selfish Protestant faction. When the Presbyterians, who formed half of the Protestant volunteers, made a similar demand for the removal of civil and political disabilities they were also ignored. Even Grattan utterly failed when he pleaded for a reform which would make the Parliament of Ireland at least a fair representative of the Protestant population of the island.

The Protestant ruling class found political power too profitable to share it with others. Only by the hardest bribery could the British government secure the coöperation of this ruling class of Ireland in the simplest measures of administration. Said Lord Hutchinson: "If ever there was a country unfit to govern itself, it is Ireland. A corrupt aristocracy, a ferocious commonalty, a distracted government, a divided people."

The real character of Ireland's Parlia-

mentary rule was seen in its rejection of Pitt's offer of free trade between England and Ireland. Pitt considered Ireland's chief danger in the misery of its native population rather than in its factious aristocracy. He perceived that the discontent of the native Catholic Irish was rapidly growing into rebellion, although they were kept down by the mere brute force of their Protestant rulers. He also observed that one cause of this discontent was Irish poverty, which had been increased, if not produced, by the jealous exclusion of Irish products from their natural markets in England.

One of Pitt's first commercial measures was a bill to put an end to this exclusion by establishing freedom of trade between England and Ireland; but, though he succeeded in silencing the jealousy of the English farmers and the English manufacturers, he was thwarted by the factious ignorance of the Irish landowners, and his bill was rejected by the Irish Parliament after it had passed the English Parliament.

Pitt was so completely discouraged that he was only roused to fresh measures of conciliation and good government for Ireland by the outbreak of the French Revolution and by the efforts which Revolutionary France was making to excite rebellion among the native Catholic Irish. In 1792 he forced on the Irish Parliament measures providing for the admission of native Irish Roman Catholics to the elective franchise and to all civil and military offices in Ireland, which promised to begin a new era of religious liberty in that oppressed land; but the promise came too late. The hope of conciliation was lost in the fast rising tide of religious and social passion.

The Protestants of Ulster organized an association of *United Irishmen* for the purpose of obtaining Parliamentary reform, and this association engaged in a correspondence with Revolutionary France and in schemes of rebellion. The native Catholic Irish peasantry, brooding over their misery and wrongs, were also roused by the French Revolution; and their disaffection manifested itself in outrages committed by organiza-

tions known as *Defenders* and *Peep-o'-day Boys*, who filled Ireland with terror. But for a while the Protestant landowners banded themselves together in *Orange Societies*, which kept down the native Catholic population by sheer terror and bloodshed.

Finally the smouldering disaffection broke out in a general conflagration, and Catholic Ireland was driven into rebellion by the lawless cruelty of the Orange yeomanry and the English troops. In 1796 and 1797 English soldiers and Orange yeomanry marched through the unhappy country torturing and scourging the "croppies," as the insurgents were called in derision because of their short-cut hair. The outrages of robbery and murder perpetrated by this soldiery and yeomanry were sanctioned by a *Bill of Indemnity* passed by the Irish Parliament, and were protected for the future by an *Insurrection Act*, also passed by the Irish Parliament, and by a suspension of the Habeas Corpus.

In the meantime the United Irishmen prepared for an insurrection, which was delayed by the failure of the French expeditions on which they had relied for aid, and especially by the British naval victory over the Dutch fleet at Camperdown. Atrocities were perpetrated on both sides, and the revolt of the United Irishmen finally broke out in 1798. The rebels lashed and tortured loyal Protestants in their turn, and mercilessly massacred the English soldiers whom they took prisoners. But as soon as the rebels had mustered fifteen thousand men in a strong camp on Vinegar Hill, near Enniscorthy, in County Wexford, that camp was stormed by the English troops under General Lake, who thus thoroughly suppressed the rebellion.

The suppression of the revolt of the United Irishmen only came in time to prevent greater calamities. A few weeks after the end of the rebellion a thousand French troops under General Humbert landed at Killala, in County Mayo, vanquished a force of three thousand English troops in a battle at Castlebar, and only surrendered when Lord Cornwallis, then Lord Lieuten-

ant of Ireland, faced them with thirty thousand English troops. Lord Cornwallis, who was a wise and humane ruler, found more difficulty in checking the reprisals of his English troops and of the Orangemen than in extinguishing the last sparks of rebellion; but his mild and merciful measures soon restored tranquillity to the island.

Prime Minister Pitt's disgust at "the bigoted fury of Irish Protestants" made him firmly resolve to end the farce of "Irish Independence," which left the unhappy country helpless at the mercy of the Protestant faction which ruled the Irish Parliament. The course of the Irish Parliament in the disputes over the regency of the Prince of Wales during the king's temporary insanity in 1788 had impressed every English statesman with the political necessity for a union of Ireland with Great Britain under one Parliament. As the only union between Great Britain and Ireland was the union of the two island kingdoms under one sovereign, the controversy of the two Parliaments might have ended in the total separation of the two kingdoms by the severance of the only link which united them. In consequence of this danger, Pitt's proposal to unite the two Parliaments was welcomed in England.

The Irish borough-mongers obstinately and resolutely opposed Pitt's measure for the Constitutional Union of the two kingdoms; but the English Prime Minister overcame their opposition by the influence of gold, and bought the assent of the Irish Parliament with a million pounds in money and with a liberal distribution of pensions and peerages to its members. Only by such wholesale bribery was Pitt able to procure the passage of an *Act of Union* by the Irish Parliament.

After the *Act of Union* had been passed by the British and Irish Parliaments, and the matter finally arranged in June, 1800, Ireland was represented in the British House of Commons by one hundred members, and in the British House of Lords by twenty-eight temporal and four spiritual peers, chosen for each Parliament by their fellows.

All restrictions on the commerce between the two islands were removed, and all the trading privileges of each were thrown open to the other; while a proportionate distribution of taxation was arranged between the two peoples thus united for the first time under one Parliament. The *Act of Union* went into effect on the first day of the nineteenth century, January 1, 1801, when the Irish Lords and Commons for the first time took their seats in the Parliament at Westminster, which was the beginning of the *United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland*.

Pitt's lavish creation of Irish peers, which constituted a part of the price which he paid for the Constitutional Union of Ireland with Great Britain, was only an instance of his deliberate policy in dealing with the peerage in general; and, although he did not succeed in reforming the British House of Commons, he brought about a practical change in the British Constitution by his reform of the House of Lords.

Few legislative bodies have varied more in the number of their members than the English House of Lords. At the end of the Wars of the Roses only thirty Lords remained to take their seats. During Queen Elizabeth's reign they numbered sixty, and the Stuarts so enlarged the peerage that they amounted to one hundred and sixty-eight. This last number was not increased to any extent during the reigns of the first two Georges, and Lord Stanhope would have restricted the peerage to the number which it had then reached had he not been prevented by the dogged opposition of Sir Robert Walpole. Though such a limitation would have been mischievous, it would have prevented the lavish creation of peers on which King George III. relied in the early part of his reign as a means of breaking up the party government which restrained him.

But what was with King George III. a mere means of corruption became with the second William Pitt a settled purpose of so altering the peerage that instead of remaining a narrow and exclusive caste it would become a large representation of the wealth

of England. He expressed his design as intended to use the House of Lords as a means of rewarding merit, to bring the peerage into closer relations with the landowning and opulent classes, and to render the crown independent of factious combinations among the existing peers. While Pitt therefore had a disdain for hereditary honors, he lavished them with more profusion than any Prime Minister before him had done. He created fifty new peers during the first five years of his Ministry, A. D. 1783-1788. In 1796 and 1797 he created thirty-five. By 1801 the peerage had been so enlarged as the price of the Constitutional Union between Great Britain and Ireland that Pitt's created peers numbered one hundred and forty-one. Pitt's successors so basely followed his example that at the end of the reign of George III., in 1820, there were double the number of hereditary peers that there had been at the time of his accession, in 1760.

The change in the peerage was not only an increase of numbers, but it was also a change in the whole character of the House of Lords. Hitherto that body had been a small assembly of great nobles, united by family or party ties so as to form a distinct power in the kingdom. Pitt completely revolutionized the Upper House of Parliament by giving it new members from the middle and commercial class, who constituted the basis of his political power—small landowners, bankers, merchants, nabobs, lawyers, army contractors, soldiers and seamen. Instead of remaining the stronghold of blood and hereditary aristocracy as it had hitherto been, the House of Lords thus became the stronghold of property—the representative of the great estates and great fortunes built up by the vast increase of English wealth. For the first time in English history the House of Lords also became the distinctly conservative element in the British Constitution.

The full import of Pitt's changes still remains to be revealed, but in some respects their results have been far different from what was intended. The increased number

of the peerage, though due to the will of the crown, has virtually freed the Upper House of Parliament from any influence which the crown can exert by the distribution of honors. This change has rendered it still more difficult to reconcile the free action of the House of Lords with the regular working of constitutional government, because the power of the crown has been practically wielded by the House of Commons, the republican part of the British government. But the increased number of the peerage has also rendered the House of Lords more responsive to public opinion when public opinion is strongly pronounced, while the political tact inherent in great aristocratic assemblies has hitherto prevented any collision between the two Houses of Parliament from ending in an irreconcilable quarrel. The most direct result of the change is the popularity of the House of Lords with the masses of the English people. The large number of its members, and the constant increase of the number from almost all classes of English society, have thus far secured it from the suspicion and ill-will which in most other constitutional governments has hampered the effective working of an upper legislative chamber.

The legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland was but a part of the plan which Pitt had conceived for the conciliation of Ireland. With the conclusion of the Parliamentary Union his project of free trade between the two islands, which had failed several years before through the folly of the Irish Parliament, was now quietly accomplished; and, in spite of inadequate capital and social disquiet, the increase of the trade, the shipping and the manufactures of Ireland has ever since proceeded unchecked. The change which placed Ireland directly under the British Parliament was followed by a gradual revision of its oppressive laws and an improvement in their administration; while Irish taxation was lightened, and a slight beginning was made in public instruction in Ireland.

But Pitt regarded the concession of relig-

ious equality as the great means of Ireland's conciliation. When he had proposed the Parliamentary Union of the two island kingdoms he had pointed out to the British Parliament that when Ireland was united with such Protestant countries as England and Scotland there would be no danger of a Catholic supremacy in Ireland in case of the removal of Catholic disabilities, and he had suggested that in such an event "an effectual and adequate provision for the Catholic clergy" would be a security for their loyalty to the British government. Pitt's words gave promise to the hopes of "Catholic Emancipation," or the removal of the civil and political disabilities of the Irish Roman Catholics, which Lord Castlereagh held out in Ireland for the purpose of preventing any Catholic opposition to the plan of Constitutional Union with Great Britain. All parties were aware that the opposition of the Catholic Irish would have defeated the projected Union, but no Catholic opposition to the project was manifested in Ireland.

After the passage of the Act of Union, Pitt prepared to submit to the British Cabinet a measure which would have raised both Roman Catholics and Dissenters to perfect equality of civil and political rights. In this measure Pitt proposed to remove all religious tests which restricted the franchise or which were required for admission to Parliament, the magistracy, the bar, municipal offices, or situations in the civil or military service of the United Kingdom. Pitt's measure provided for political security by the imposition of an oath of allegiance and of fidelity to the British Constitution, in place of the Sacramental Test; while a government grant of some provision secured the loyalty of both the Catholic and Non-conformist clergy. To conciliate the Anglican State Church, measures were added to strengthen its means of discipline and to increase the stipends of its poorer clergy. To insure harmony between the Episcopal clergy and the Irish people, a commutation of tithes was provided for.

Pitt's wise measure was too broad and statesmanlike to obtain the immediate as-

sent of the Cabinet; and, before such assent could be procured, the scheme was communicated to King George III. through the treachery of the Lord Chancellor, Lord Loughborough. The king angrily declared to Dundas: "I count any man my personal enemy who proposes any such measure." Pitt replied to this outburst of royal wrath by submitting his whole project to His Majesty. The Prime Minister wrote to the king thus: "The political circumstances under which the exclusive laws originated, arising either from the conflicting power of hostile and nearly balanced sects, from the apprehension of a Popish queen as successor, a disputed succession and a foreign pretender, a division in Europe between Catholic and Protestant powers, are no longer applicable to the present state of things." But it was useless to argue with George III. In spite of the lawyers whom the king consulted, he considered himself bound by his Coronation Oath to maintain the religious tests; and his bigotry coincided too well with the religious hatred and political distrust of the Roman Catholics still entertained by the majority of the English people not to make his decision fatal to Pitt's beneficent measure.

But Pitt held firmly to the principle of his liberal measure, and resigned in February, 1801; whereupon Mr. Addington, Speaker of the House of Commons, a man as dull and bigoted as George III. himself, became Prime Minister. The war with the French Republic was ended by the Peace of Amiens, March 27, 1802, but was renewed in 1803, as we shall afterward see.

In 1803 Colonel Despard and others were executed in England for plotting against the government; and Robert Emmett was hanged in Dublin for an attempt at rebellion in Ireland, Lord Kilwarden and others having been killed by the insurgents. In India during 1803 the Mahrattas were defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterward Duke of Wellington, at Assayé and Argaum; while General Lake took Delhi and Agra by storm; whereupon the Mahrattas ceded large territories to the East India Company.

SECTION XI.—THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.



LOUIS XV. had at first secured the esteem of the French people to such an extent that he was surnamed *the Well-beloved*. When he was taken seriously ill at Metz, in 1744, the whole kingdom was filled with sorrow; and his recovery was hailed with transports of joy. But Louis soon lost the affections of his subjects when he plunged into the most excessive vices and riotous debauchery, and left the government of his kingdom to the most profligate and licentious favorites, such as Madames Pompadour and Du Barri. Of these favorites, Madame Pompadour possessed the greatest influence at court. For twenty years she controlled the affairs of France, procured the appointment of her favorites to the most responsible offices, used the public revenues for her own private purposes, and determined when the nation should be at peace or war. The favorites of the king encouraged his debauchery, so that he would leave the affairs of state entirely in their hands. As the king grew older his licentiousness increased, so that at length he lost all respect and was regarded with contempt.

The voluptuousness and extravagance of the French court, and the unnecessary and expensive wars with the other European states, exhausted the French treasury, increased the public debt, and burdened the French people with the most oppressive taxes. The taxes were all paid by the middle and lower classes, while the nobility and the clergy were exempt from all taxation. In addition to the land and property tax, capitation tax, house tax, and duties upon certain articles, the lower classes had to pay tithes, labor dues, and other feudal taxes to the aristocracy.

Although the French nobility were a distinct class, an hereditary caste, and although all their descendants were noble and enjoyed the privileges and immunities inherited from

birth, their number was an intolerable burden upon the country, although they possessed no political power since the days of Cardinal Richelieu. About this time the French nobility numbered almost one hundred and forty thousand. Only persons of noble birth were eligible to high rank in the French army or to lucrative preferments in the Church; and, as all military and ecclesiastical promotion depended upon the king's pleasure, assiduous attendance at court was indispensable for the ambitious who desired active service, and for the indolent who wished for honors or sinecures. The habit of court or military life tended to further separate the French nobility from their countrymen, upon whom they looked down with the pride of privileged rank and with the arrogance frequently attaching to military command. But with all their privileges and immunities, the mode of life of the French nobility, and their contemptuous disregard of economy and business, were such that most of them were poor, many being reduced to absolute indigence.

All laws and decrees respecting taxation, in order to be valid, required registration by the Parliament of Paris. Whenever the Parliament refused to register or sanction the tax laws and decrees, it became involved in a vehement dispute with the court, which generally ended in a *Bed of Justice*, by which the king overcame all opposition and carried his point.

Another cause of strife between the court and the Parliament were the *lettres de cachet*, written orders bearing the seal of the king, banishing the person to whom they were addressed, or ordering him to be confined in prison. This power was greatly abused. Any person hating another could easily gratify his malice by obtaining, for a certain sum of money, a *lettre de cachet* from the ruling favorite of the king, consigning the innocent victim to a lonely dungeon, from which death, in the majority of cases, was

the only release. The only check on the absolute power of the king was the Parliament of Paris. After a ten years' contention with the Parliament, Louis put an end to the matter by causing the most refractory members to be arrested; and, by a series of edicts, he deprived the Parliaments of all their privileges.

he lacked the ability and firmness necessary for the circumstances by which he was surrounded. The extravagance and wickedness of the court of Louis XV. had reduced France to a most deplorable condition. The finances of the kingdom were in a disordered state, the public credit was gone, and the great body of the French peo-



The profligate Louis XV. died in 1774, sighing: "*Après moi le déluge*," "After me the deluge." He was succeeded on the throne of France by his grandson, Louis XVI., who was then only twenty years of age. Louis XVI. was a pious prince, and sincerely anxious for the good of the people over whom he reigned; but

ple were groaning under the most oppressive taxation. The weak king permitted the extravagance and frivolousness of his brothers, the Count of Provence, afterward Louis XVIII., and the Count of Artois, afterward Charles X. He also allowed his wife, Marie Antoinette, the daughter of the great Austrian empress-queen, Maria The-

resa, to exercise great influence upon the court and government of France. The pride and the haughty conduct of the queen provoked the dislike of the French people, who attributed every unpopular measure to her influence in the affairs of state.

Louis XVI. was a good, dull monarch—earnestly desiring to reform the evils of the state, but knowing as little how as did that princess of his family who, upon being told that thousands of peasants were starving to death for want of bread, exclaimed: "Poor things! If there is no bread why do you not give them cake?"

The prevalent scarcity of money and the disordered state of the public finances of France could only be remedied by wise reforms, such as were proposed by Turgot, whom the young king first entrusted with the charge of the finances. But Turgot's measures of economy were bitterly opposed by the extravagant courtiers, and the able Minister of Finance was obliged to resign his office.

Necker, a wealthy Swiss banker, was next appointed to take charge of the French finances. By pursuing the same course which his predecessor had adopted, and exposing the financial state of France in a pamphlet, Necker made himself so obnoxious to the French court and aristocracy that he also was obliged to retire from his post, A. D. 1781.

About this time the War of the American Revolution, in which France took part as ally of the Americans, increased the public debt of France, and excited sentiments of freedom and republicanism among the French people. Such of the French soldiers as served in America carried to France the republican spirit which they had imbibed from their American allies, and imparted to their countrymen the lessons of freedom which they had learned. The writings of Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau and the Encyclopedists had made the French people discontented with existing institutions; and, in connection with the establishment of a democratic republic in North America, led to the mighty upheaval which

convulsed France and all Europe in this reign.

The vain and extravagant Calonne, who, through the influence of the queen, was now appointed Minister of Finance, adopted a policy just the reverse of that which had been pursued by the economical Necker. He continued the system of loans long after the termination of the American war, and delighted the queen and the courtiers by giving the most extravagant entertainments; but his resources were at length exhausted, and he saw no other remedy than the taxation of the nobility and the clergy of France. For the purpose of securing the adoption of this course, he called an Assembly of Notables at Versailles in 1787. After a long struggle, the project of universal taxation was defeated; and Calonne, threatened with impeachment, resigned his office and retired from the country.

Calonne's successor as Minister of Finance was Brienne, who found himself obliged to follow the usual method of raising loans and increasing the taxes, in order to cover the deficit in the revenue; but in this he met with the most determined opposition from the Parliament of Paris, which refused to register his edicts. The government then arrested the boldest speakers of the Parliament, and banished them to Troyes. This proceeding aroused such a storm of indignation among the French people that the government effected a compromise with the banished members, who were again recalled; and the Parliaments were again sanctioned.

The French people openly manifested their opposition to the court party. The Parliament of Paris was surrounded by noisy multitudes, which denounced the court party, and showed their approval of the course of the opposition members. Brienne, who had incurred the hatred of the people, was daily burned in effigy; and in many towns in the kingdom alarming riots occurred. The people demanded the convocation of the States-General. The government made an effort to put an end to all opposition by changing the Parliament into a *cour pleniére*, "plenary court," and several subordinate courts.

But the effort to overcome the opposition of the people was useless; and Brienne found himself obliged to resign his situation at a time when the French treasury was destitute of funds, and the French government appeared on the eve of bankruptcy.

That great idol of the French people, Necker, was now recalled to the management of the finances of France. His restoration was hailed with acclamations of joy, and confidence was again restored. Necker procured the repeal of the edicts against the Parliament of Paris, and then made arrangements for the assembling of the States-General, an assembly composed of representatives chosen by the Three Estates—the nobility, the clergy and the people—which had not met since 1614. A Convention of Notables was first assembled to decide on the preliminaries necessary to the convocation of the States-General. The people demanded, and Necker maintained, that the representatives of the people, *Tiers Etat*, "Third Estate," in the coming meeting of the States-General, should equal the number of representatives of the other two Estates taken together. This double representation, after much deliberation, was conceded; and the king fixed the number of representatives at three hundred for the nobles, three hundred for the clergy and six hundred for the people. The king appointed the ensuing May as the time for the meeting of the States-General.

The States-General assembled at Versailles on the 5th of May, 1789. Some of the ablest and most distinguished men of France were among its members. At the opening of this great assembly a difficulty arose as to how the representatives of the Three Estates should vote. The clergy and the nobility demanded that the three orders should meet in three separate bodies, while the people insisted that the Three Estates should meet in one body. If they met in separate bodies, every measure, in order to become a law, must receive the approval of two of the Estates voting separately. It would, therefore, be an easy matter for the clergy and the nobles, whose in-

terests were almost identical, to unite for the purpose of defeating measures for the elevation of the people. On the other hand, if they met in one body, the people, on account of their double representation, would be able to manage everything their own way.

After waiting some weeks for the nobility and the clergy to join them, the deputies of the Third Estate, on the 17th of June, 1789, declared themselves the *National Assembly* of France, being, as they maintained, the representatives of the great body of the French people. Its ablest members were the Count de Mirabeau and the Abbé Sieyès. The astronomer Bailly, the representative of Paris and a great advocate of popular freedom, was chosen president of the Assembly, which was then joined by a part of the representation of the clergy and the nobles.

The National Assembly immediately voted that the present levy of taxes should only continue so long as the Estates remained undissolved, and that they should cease entirely in case of a dissolution of the Estates. This boldness of the Assembly alarmed the court, under whose influence the king appointed a *Royal Session*, and closed the hall of the Assembly for several days. When, on the 20th of June (1789), the members of the Assembly found the halls closed, they proceeded to the Tennis Court, where they made a solemn vow not to separate until they had framed a constitution for the French nation. When, on the 22d of June, the court caused the Tennis Court to be closed, the members of the Assembly proceeded to the Church of St. Louis, where they held their meeting. The Royal Session took place on the 23d of June. The king granted some concessions, but threatened vengeance upon the National Assembly unless the Three Estates met in three distinct bodies. After the close of the Royal Session the king dissolved the Assembly. The nobility and the clergy obeyed, and immediately withdrew from the hall, but the deputies of the people kept their seats; and when the king's officer,

the Marquis de Breze, ordered them to withdraw, the Count de Mirabeau arose from his seat and exclaimed: "You, sir, have no seat, nor a right to open your lips here. You are not to remind us of the king's desire. Go, tell your master that we sit here by the power of the people of France, and that we will only be driven away at the point of the bayonet." The Ablé Sieyès

gaged in forming a constitution for the French kingdom, the populace of Paris were kept in a constant state of excitement by licentious journals, pamphlets and inflammatory speeches. Unprincipled demagogues delivered violent discourses upon the rights of man, in the streets, in taverns, and particularly in the Palais Royal, the residence of the dissolute Duke of Orleans, the cousin

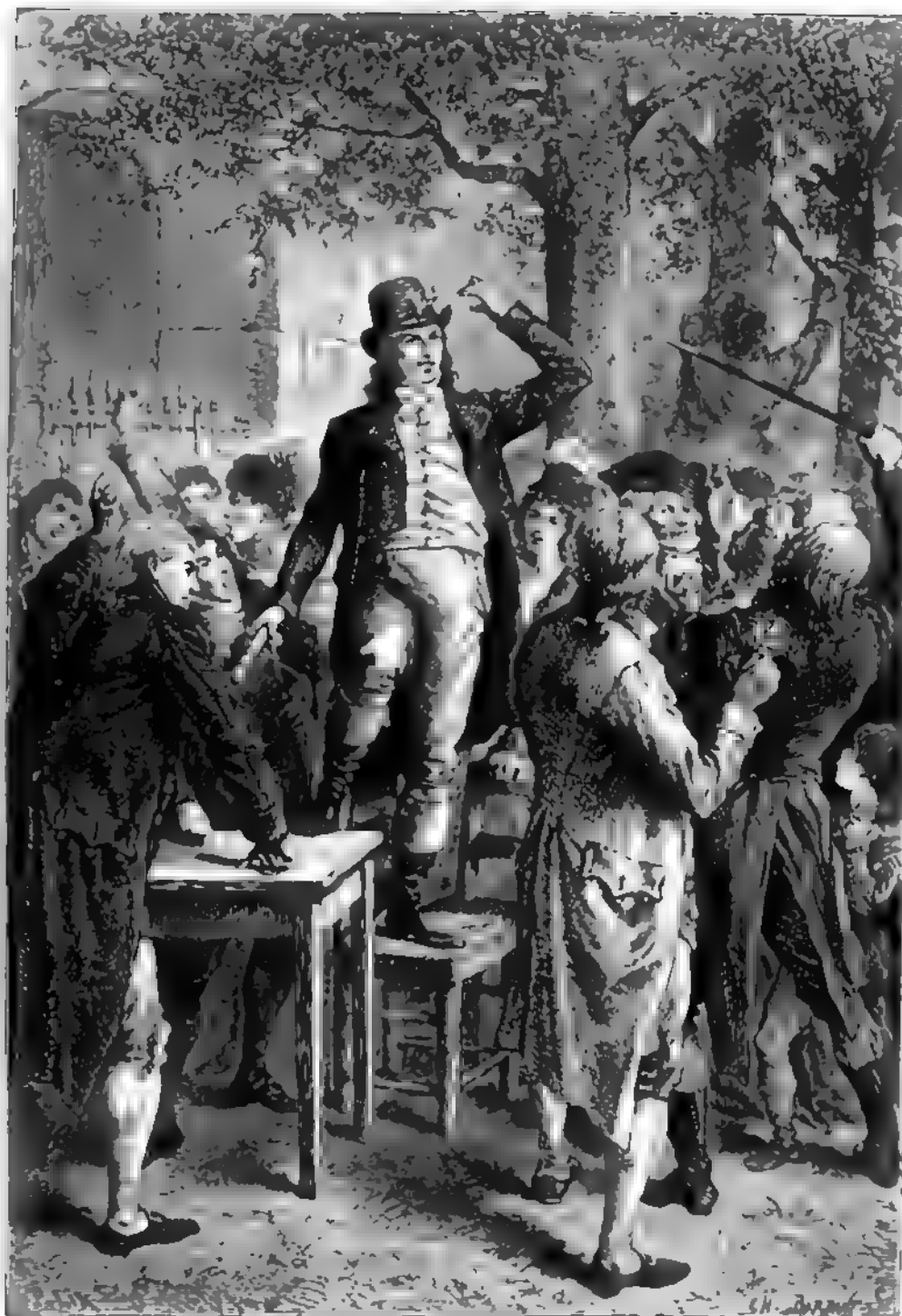


THE BASTILLE.

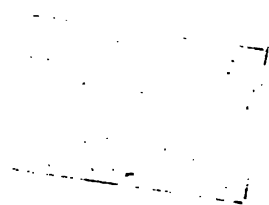
then addressed the Assembly in these words: "You are to-day what you were yesterday. Let us enter on our deliberations." The weak monarch did not attempt to force the refractory deputies to obey, but a few days afterward he advised the nobles and the clergy to unite with the representatives of the people.

While the National Assembly was en-

of the king. The people to obtain their rights by the popular orators was a socialist for popular liberties. The military in popular side, and became the *National Guard*, a city government of



CAMILLE DESMOULINS IN THE PALAIS ROYAL.



hands of the democrats, with Bailly as Mayor. A revolutionary spirit prevailed among the people of the capital, and Paris was slumbering over a volcano which was ready to burst forth at any moment.

The French court, becoming alarmed at the excited state of the populace of Paris, retired to Versailles with a small guard composed of German and Swiss troops. The leaders of the people, thinking that the king intended some act of violence, took advantage of the removal of the court to inflame the people of Paris still more. The irresolute king now listened to the indiscreet counsels of his courtiers and nobles, and a large army under Marshal Broglio was collected between Versailles and the capital. This, instead of intimidating the people, only inflamed their rage. At the same time Necker, whom the people greatly esteemed, was dismissed from the Ministry. The populace of Paris, thinking this preliminary to an intended act of violence on the part of the court, rose as one man. Crowds of the lowest rabble, wearing the newly adopted national cockade, or *tricolor*, consisting of red, white and blue ribbon, marched through the streets of the city; the alarm bell was sounded; the gunsmiths' shops were broken open and plundered; and the whole city was filled with riot and confusion.

On the 14th of July, 1789, the populace of Paris, after obtaining thirty thousand stand of arms and some cannon from the Hôtel des Invalides, proceeded against the Bastile, an old castle used as a state prison. The governor, Delaunay, was induced by the garrison in the Bastile to remove the cannon from the fortress, as they only served to increase the fury of the populace. Soon afterward a deputation from the Commune of Paris, headed by the popular leaders, appeared, and demanded an entrance into the Bastile for the purpose of conferring with the governor. The drawbridge was lowered for the admission of the deputation; but when the mob rushed forward and demanded arms the drawbridge was closed, and the garrison, by order of the governor, fired upon

the multitude. The cries of the wounded and the dying filled the people with ungovernable rage, and they commenced storming the Bastile with fury. The garrison still resisted the advance of their assailants, who, being soon joined by a body of grenadiers, redoubled the vigor of the assault. The governor and the garrison, in despair, at length surrendered; and the populace were completely triumphant. The governor was torn in pieces by the enraged mob while on his way to the Hôtel de Ville, and his head was carried on a pole through the streets of Paris. This was the beginning of the great *French Revolution*.

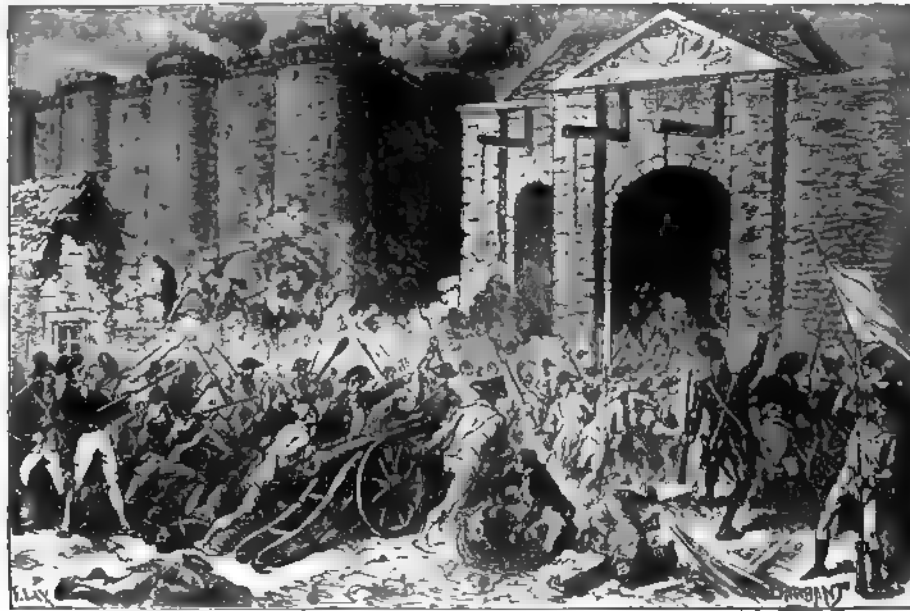
The storming and capture of the Bastile by the mob of Paris struck the king and the aristocrats with consternation. The National Assembly at Versailles was violently agitated by the news from Paris, and some member proposed to send a deputation to the king to urge him to remove the troops from the city; but Clermont Tonnerre said: "No, let us have them this night to take counsel. It is well that kings, like private men, should learn by experience." The Duke de Laincourt informed the king that the Bastile was taken by the mob, that Paris was in insurrection, that the guards were siding with the mob, and that the regiments of the line were sullen and inactive. After a long silence, the king said: "This is an insurrection." The Duke de Laincourt replied: "No, sire, it is a revolution."

The universal defection of the troops rendered resistance hopeless, and Louis XVI. had no other alternative than submission to the triumphant populace. The banished Necker was immediately recalled to the Ministry, and was received with enthusiastic joy by the people. The king returned to Paris, gave orders for the removal of the troops, appeared before the people with the tricolor in his hat, and declared himself united with the nation. Bailly, as Mayor of Paris, presented the keys of the city to the king, saying: "Sire, these are the keys that were offered to Henry IV., the conqueror of his people. To-day it is the

people who have reconquered their king." Lafayette, who had fought so nobly for freedom in America, was appointed commander of the National Guard.

The consequences of the capture of the Bastille were that the authority of the government and the laws throughout France was at an end. All power was in the hands of the people. The peasants of the provinces no longer paid their dues to the clergy and the nobility, but they took a terrible revenge for the tyranny which they and their ancestors had suffered for centuries. Many of the nobles were murdered or driven

the clergy consented to surrender all their privileges and titles. Each of the privileged classes seemed to vie with the other in showing its willingness to make the greatest sacrifices for the welfare of the people. In one excited session, in the evening of the 4th of August, 1789, the National Assembly abolished serfdom, with all tithes, labor dues, all exclusive privileges and all titles and distinctions of rank in France, and declared the equality of all classes before the law and with respect to taxation. A medal was struck representing Louis XVI. as the restorer of French liberty, and



STORMING THE BASTILLE.

away, and their chateaux were reduced to ashes. Many thousands of the nobility and aristocracy—with the Count of Artois and Princes of Condé and Polignac at their head—fled from France, for which reason they were called *Emigrants*.

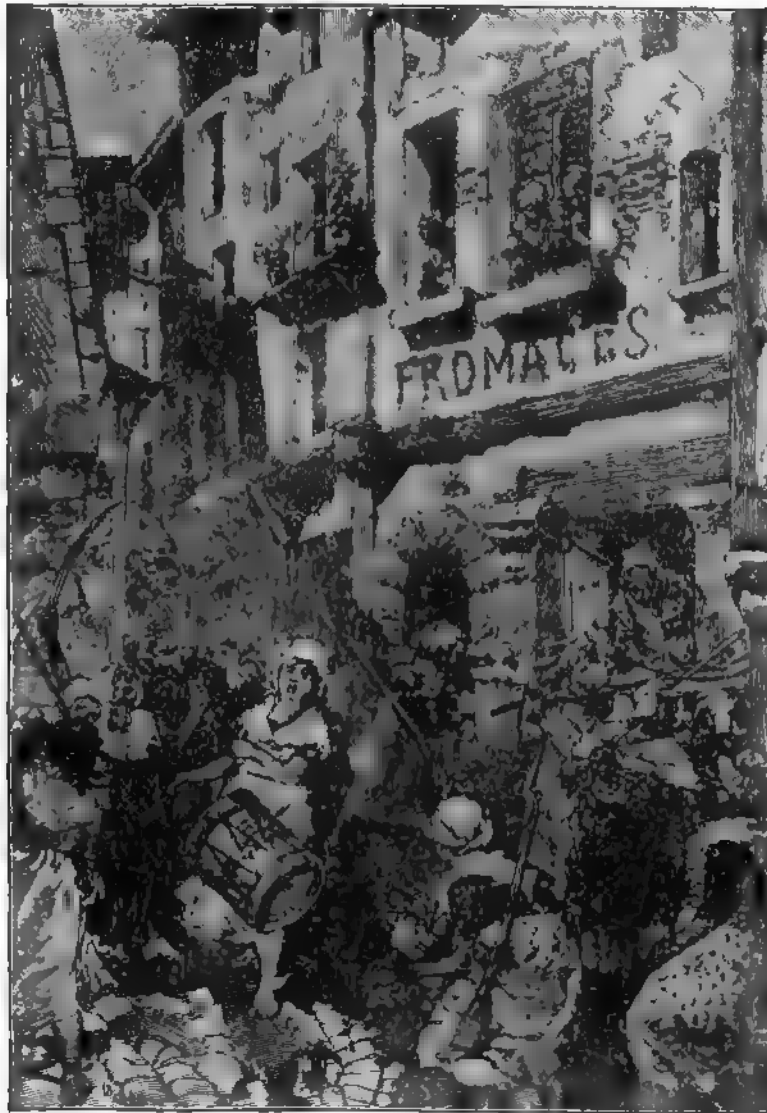
When informed of the proceedings in the provinces, the National Assembly declared that the aristocracy should show by their conduct that they were ready to ameliorate the condition of the masses of the French people, and, with this view, renounce all their exclusive privileges and titles. In one sudden burst of enthusiasm, the nobles and

the king himself presided at a Te Deum to celebrate the happy event. The Assembly published a *Declaration of the Rights of Man*, which, on motion of Lafayette, included the right to resist oppression. By degrees, all vestiges of the Feudal System were swept away; trial by jury and religious freedom were established; the Church was deprived of all her possessions; and the whole political condition of France was changed. Every Frenchman was granted the right to vote for representatives in the Assembly. France was divided into eighty-three *Departments*, or *Prefectures*, which were divided,

subdivided and resubdivided into *Arrondissements, Cantons and Communes*.

The hesitation of the king in promulgating the resolutions of the Assembly as laws produced suspicions among the French people of his sincerity. These suspicions gained

were drunk, and many of the officers, mostly young nobles, under the influence of wine, made imprudent speeches against the privileges and liberties which had just been acquired by the people. An exaggerated account of these proceedings was spread



THE BREAD RIOT.

ground when the Flemish regiment was summoned to Versailles, and the king, the queen and the Dauphin were imprudent enough to appear at a dinner given by the soldiers of the body-guard to the officers of the regiment, when several royalist toasts

were drunk, and many of the officers, mostly young nobles, under the influence of wine, made imprudent speeches against the privileges and liberties which had just been acquired by the people. An exaggerated account of these proceedings was spread

through Paris, and the people feared that an attempt would be made to restore the former despotism. During the months of August and September, 1789, the National Assembly was diligently engaged in the task of framing a



HUSSAR—INFANTRYMAN.



GENERAL (1795)—LIGHT INFANTRY OFFICER (1795)—
INFANTRY OF THE LINE (1795).

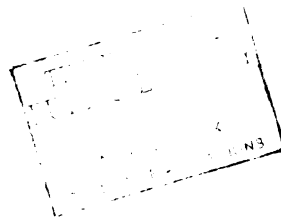


COSTUME OF CITIZEN (1796).



FRENCH GENERALS (1799-1800).

THE SOLDIERS OF THE REVOLUTION.



France, was the most celebrated and the most powerful. The members of this club wore a red cap, and were satisfied with nothing less than a pure democratic republic with liberty and equality for all classes. Another democratic club was that of the *Cordeliers*, which had such violent Revolutionists as Danton and Camille Desmoulins among its leaders. The *Constitutional* club, which favored a constitutional monarchy, and to which Lafayette belonged, declined in importance daily.

On July 14, 1790—the anniversary of the destruction of the Bastille—a grand ceremony, known as the *Fête of the Federation*, took place in the Champ de Mars, in Paris, at which the utmost enthusiasm and good feeling was manifested by all classes and all persons. The king, the members of the National Assembly, and Lafayette in the name of the National Guard, took an oath to support the new constitution which the Assembly was engaged in framing.

Necker had already retired to Switzerland; and the Count de Mirabeau, who had at first been one of the most enthusiastic supporters of the Revolution, now joined the cause of the king, believing a constitutional monarchy, and not a republic, to be the best form of government for France. He now exerted himself to his utmost to prevent any encroachment on the authority of the king; but, unfortunately for Louis XVI., Mirabeau died in April, 1791; and the timid and irresolute king was no longer able to resist the increasing influence of the Jacobins. A short time before his death, Mirabeau said: "Before long neither the king nor the National Assembly will rule, but a wild faction will overspread the land with its horrors." Mirabeau had been a man of conservative views and loose principles, and of most licentious and corrupt morals, having squandered his fortune by his dissipation and profligacy.

The refusal of the king to declare the Emigrants traitors led to a prevalent belief among the French people that he was not a true supporter of the constitution then framing. This belief excited the fears of the

king, and he resolved upon leaving the country. Leaving behind him a letter in which he protested against all the measures which had been forced from him since October, 1789, he fled with his family from Paris in a large carriage, in June, 1791; but did not succeed in escaping from the kingdom. Imprudently putting his head out of the window of the carriage, Louis was recognized by Drouet, the postmaster of St. Menehould, who immediately rode off to Varennes to give the alarm. When the royal family arrived at Varennes the road was barricaded, and the carriage was soon surrounded by a tumultuous mob. At this moment a party of soldiers rode up to the carriage, and asked Louis if they should force a passage for him through the crowd. The king asked if it would cost many lives, and, being told that it probably would, forbade the attempt and surrendered himself a prisoner. The royal family were conducted in triumph to Paris by an insolent mob, and again compelled to resume their residence in the palace of the Tuileries.

The National Assembly, in obedience to the demands of the French people, temporarily suspended the royal authority until the king should swear to the new constitution, which was now almost completed. On the 14th of September, 1791, Louis XVI. took an oath to defend the constitution against internal and external enemies, and to enforce its provisions to the best of his ability. After the adoption of the constitution, the National Assembly passed an ordinance declaring that none of its members should be elected to the next Assembly, and then declared itself dissolved.

The elections for representatives in the new Assembly, called the *Legislative Assembly*, had resulted in a complete success of the republicans. The royalists had exercised no influence in the elections whatever. The Assembly was thoroughly democratic. The *French Legislative Assembly*—which convened at Paris, October 1, 1791—was divided between three parties. The *Feuillants*, or Constitutionalists, then an insignificant party, upheld the constitution

and the monarchy. The moderate republicans—called *Girondists*, because their leading orators were from Bordeaux and the Department of the Gironde—comprised the best men in the Assembly, such as Brissot, Roland, Barbaroux, Condorcet, Vergniaud, Dumouriez and others. This party was opposed to unnecessary bloodshed, and in favor of a federal republic like the United States. The violent republicans, or Jacobins—called the *Mountain*, because they occupied the highest seats in the Assembly—were controlled by the Jacobin and Cordeliers clubs, whose chiefs were Robespierre, Marat, Danton, Camille Desmoulins, St. Just, Couthon, Duke Philip of Orleans and others. These Red Republicans, or bloodthirsty Revolutionists, were anarchists, and were upheld by the Paris Commune and the Paris mob.

The first measures of the French Legislative Assembly were directed against the priests who refused to take the Revolutionary oath, and against the Emigrants, who had gathered at Coblenz and were making every effort to stir up foreign powers to make war on France for the purpose of effecting the restoration of the former despotism. The Assembly took measures for the arrest of the unsworn priests, and declared the Emigrants to be traitors and conspirators, and endeavored to effect the confiscation of their estates. These measures were vetoed by the king, and their execution was thus prevented. This excited the indignation of the French people, who believed that the royal family were plotting with the Emigrants and with Leopold II. of Austria, Emperor of Germany, the brother of the queen, for the overthrow of the new system and for the reëstablishment of the old state of things in France.

From the beginning of the Revolution the crowned heads of Europe had looked with alarm upon the rising tide of republicanism in France; and Edmund Burke, the great Irish-English statesman, had done all in his power to excite a European crusade against this mighty disturbance of the social and political institutions which Europe had re-

ceived from mediæval and feudal times. As the British Parliament and the Ministry of the younger William Pitt were deaf to his appeals, he appealed to England and to Europe through his pen by publishing his *Reflections on the French Revolution* in October, 1790, as already noticed. We have also seen that he sent his son to join the army of the Emigrants at Coblenz, and that he wrote to them: "Be alarmists; diffuse terror."

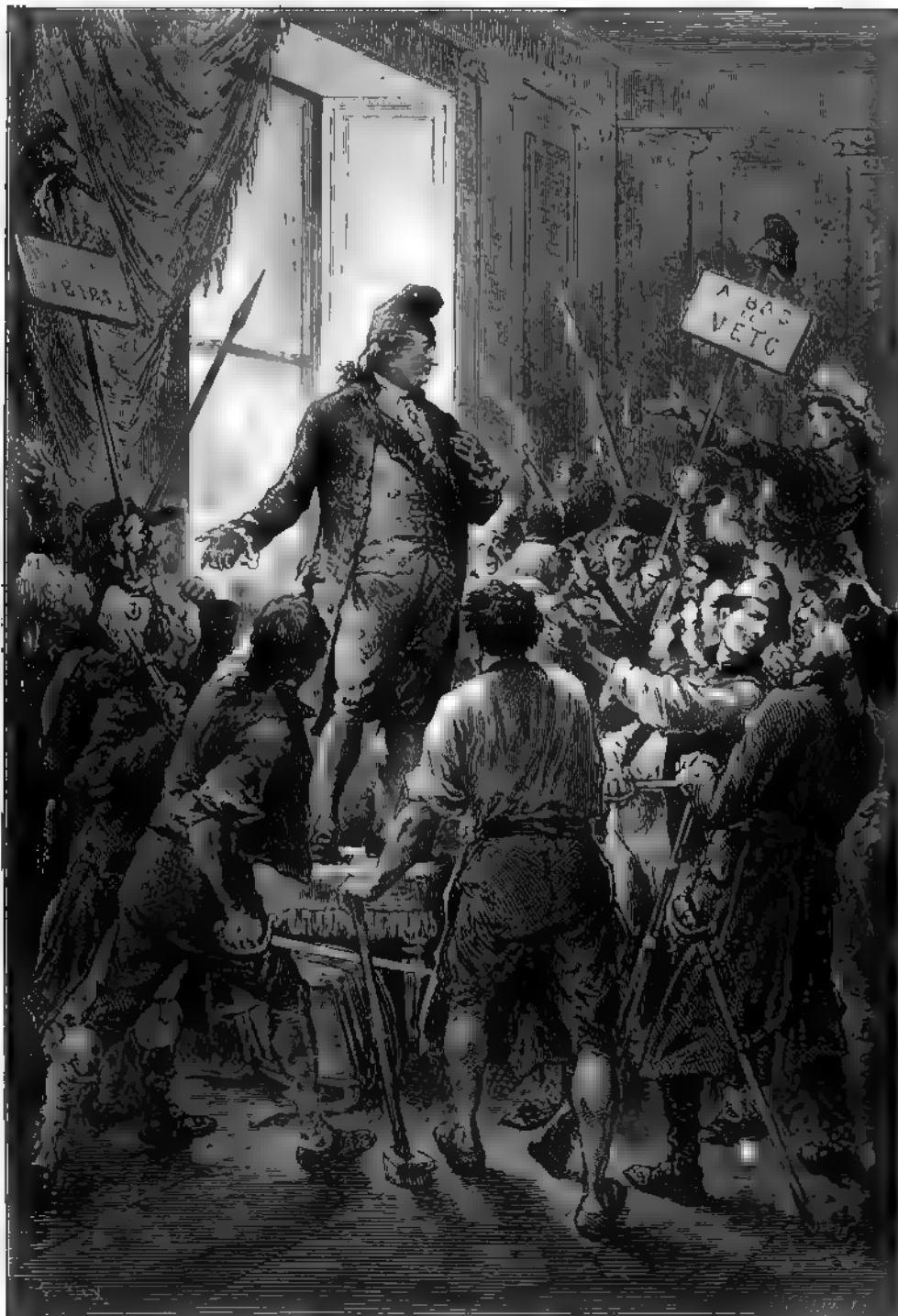
It was now evident that a foreign war must soon break out. The Emperor Leopold II. of Germany, and such Bourbon kings as Charles IV. of Spain and Ferdinand IV. of Naples, were moved by ties of kindred to protect the royal family of France. The Empress Catharine the Great of Russia hastened to end her second war with Turkey in order to further her designs against Poland by embroiling Austria and Prussia in the rescue of the French monarchy from the menacing hands of the Revolutionists of Paris.

The divided jurisdiction of the border provinces between France and Germany demanded immediate action on the part of the Emperor Leopold II. and the German Imperial Diet. By the famous Act of August 4, 1789, several German princes had been deprived of their feudal claims in Franche-Comté, Alsace and Lorraine; while the Archbishop-Electors of Treves and Mayence had lost their spiritual rights over the cities of Spire, Strasburg, Metz, Toul and Verdun.

The Emperor Leopold II. of Germany and King Frederick William II. of Prussia at their conference at Pilnitz, in Saxony, in August, 1791, united in a demand that the French should reform their government upon the plan proposed by their king in June, 1789, and appealed to the other European powers to join them in an effort to reëstablish Louis XVI. in his former authority. Accordingly Austria, Prussia, Spain and Sardinia assembled troops to suppress the Revolution in France; but England hesitated, as the peaceful Mr. Pitt was unwilling to interfere in the internal affairs



ARREST OF LOUIS XVI. AT VARENNES.



LOUIS XVI. WITH THE MOB IN THE TUILERIES.

of France until he was forced to do so as an act of self-defense, and he was supported by the Tories, while the Whigs followed Mr. Fox in his applause of the French Revolution, so that Mr. Burke was left alone in his anti-Revolutionary sentiment.

The Count of Provence, a brother of King Louis XVI., having fled from France, assumed the command of the Emigrant forces at Coblenz, where he established a little court, which became the headquarters of these refugee French nobles. The movements of the Coalition were delayed by the death of the Emperor Leopold II. of Germany and the assassination of King Gustavus III. of Sweden, both of which occurred in March. 1792.

The French people were exasperated that foreign powers should dictate to them what form of government they should have, and they resolved never to submit to such insolence. The ablest men of the Legislative Assembly—which was inferior in talent to the National Assembly—were in the Girondist party, which gained the ascendancy upon the first hostile movement of Austria and Prussia.

The preparations of Austria and Prussia to interfere in the affairs of France, and Austria's ultimatum demanding the restoration of the former despotism in France, caused the French Legislative Assembly to declare war, April 20, 1792. King Louis XVI., unable to resist the will of the Assembly and the people of France, accepted a Girondist Ministry headed by Roland, and with tears yielded his assent to the declaration of war against the sovereign who had armed in his behalf—his own nephew, Francis II. of Austria, who had succeeded his father Leopold II. as King of Hungary and Bohemia, and who was afterward also elected Emperor of Germany.

The confiscations of ecclesiastical and royal property had filled the treasury of the Assembly; and three French armies—commanded respectively by Lafayette, Rochambeau and Luckner—were sent to guard the northern and eastern frontiers of France. Rochambeau's army, forty-eight thousand

strong, held the line from Dunkirk to Philippeville; Lafayette's force, numbering fifty-two thousand men, occupied the line from Philippeville to Lauterbourg; and Luckner's forty-two thousand troops were stationed in the district between Lauterbourg and Basle. The French military operations were unsuccessful, and two strong French detachments were routed by the Austrians near Lille and Valenciennes.

The Girondists were now obliged to make additional bids for the support of the mob by decreeing the banishment of the priests who refused to take the Revolutionary oath, the dismissal of the royal guards, and the formation of a "federal army" to be encamped near Paris. Lafayette, who was disgusted and alarmed by these movements, wrote to the Legislative Assembly from his camp on the northern frontier, demanding the suppression of the Jacobin faction and its clubs; but his efforts only hastened the catastrophe which he sought to prevent.

To secure the Legislative Assembly against any attack, it was determined to call twenty thousand of the federates from the northern provinces of France to Paris, with the professed object of celebrating the capture of the Bastille and to entrust the defense of Paris to them. But Louis XVI. refused his approval of this measure; whereupon the Girondist Ministers, with Roland at their head, resigned their offices, June 13, 1792; and Madame Roland severely censured the king in a letter. These proceedings excited the frenzy of the French people, and enabled the Revolutionists to bring about an insurrection. On the 20th of June, the anniversary of the Tennis Court, a furious mob, armed with scythes, clubs, axes, forks and pikes, and headed by the brewer Santerre and the butcher Legendre, entered the Tuileries for the purpose of compelling the king to approve of the decrees against the unsworn priests and for calling out the National Guard. For several hours the king bore the insults of the mob, who even went so far as to take off his diadem and put the red cap of the Jacobins on his head, until the appearance of the

National Guard under Pétion freed him from danger.

The plots of the Emigrants and the Austro-Prussian invasion of France caused the Assembly to declare the country in danger; and, in response to the call of the Jacobin leaders—Robespierre, Danton and Marat—the “federal army” mustered throughout France. The vilest wretches, many of them ex-convicts, hastened to Paris, singing the Revolutionary song just written by Rouget de l’ Isle, and named the *Marseillaise*, because it was published at Marseilles.

The following is an English translation of the *Marseillaise*:

‘Ye sons of France, awake to glory!
Hark, hark, what myriads bid you rise!
Your children, wives and grandsires hoary,
Behold their tears and hear their cries.
Shall hateful tyrants, mischief breeding,
With hireling hosts, a ruffian band,
Affright and desolate the land,
While peace and liberty lie bleeding?

CHORUS.

“To arms, to arms, ye brave!
Th’ avenging sword unsheath.
March on, march on, all hearts resolved
On liberty or death!

“Now, now the dangerous storm is rolling,
Which treacherous kings confederate raise.
The dogs of war, let loose, are howling,
And lo! our fields and cities blaze.
And shall we basely view the ruin,
While lawless Force, with guilty stride,
Spreads desolation far and wide,
With crime and blood his hands imbruing?

“With luxury and pride surrounded,
The vile, infatuate despots dare—
Their thirst of gold and power unbounded,
To mete and vend the light and air.
Like beasts of burden would they load us—
Like tyrants bid their slaves adore;
But man is man, and who is more?
Nor shall they longer lash and goad us.

“O Liberty! can man resign thee,
Once having felt thy generous flame?
Can dungeons, bolts and bars confine thee,
Or whips thy noble spirit tame?
Too long the world has wept, bewailing
That falsehood’s dagger tyrants wield;
But freedom is our sword and shield,
And all their arts are unavailing!”

Near the close of July, 1792, an Austro-Prussian army of one hundred and fort thousand men, commanded by Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, the celebrated commander of the English and Hanoverian forces in the Seven Years’ War, passed the eastern frontier of France and marched into Lorraine. Before advancing into France the Duke of Brunswick, at the proposal of one of the Emigrants, had issued an insolent proclamation demanding that the French submit to their lawful sovereign, threatening to lay Paris in ashes if the royal family were harmed, and promising to obtain a free pardon from their sovereign for their rebellious conduct if they submitted. The insolent tone of this proclamation tended to inflame the mad fury of the Revolutionists in Paris, and excited in the French people the fiercest rage against the Emigrants and their foreign allies.

Such Jacobin leaders as Robespierre, Marat, Danton and Camille Desmoulins harangued the Parisian populace and inflamed their rage. These demagogues called to Paris from Marseilles, Brest and other French maritime towns the very dregs of society, and resolved upon a general insurrection in the capital. On August 3d (1792) the Sections of Paris, headed by Pétion, proceeded to the Assembly and demanded the instant dethronement of Louis XVI. The federal volunteers made the same demand on the 6th (August, 1792). The Assembly hesitated, and finally resolved by a large majority not to arrest the king or bring him to trial. This action of the Assembly so infuriated the Sections that they resolved to take the matter in their own hands, and after they had secured the municipal government of Paris they proceeded to execute their purpose.

Before daylight on the 10th of August (1792) a frantic mob led by Danton appeared before the Tuileries, which was defended by nine hundred Swiss guards and the Parisian National Guard. The mob pointed their cannon toward the palace; and the National Guard, unwilling to fire upon the multitude, dispersed. The mob, gradu-



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STORMING OF THE TUILERIES, AUGUST 10, 1792.

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ally becoming bolder, finally demanded the dethronement of the king. Hereupon the king and his family fled to the hall of the Assembly, where they remained for thirty-six hours. No sooner had the king left the Tuileries than the mob pressed forward and endeavored to force an entrance into the palace; whereupon the Swiss guards fired upon the multitude, who were driven back with a loss of two hundred men. The indignant Assembly, hearing the fire of musketry, required the king to order his guards to cease firing upon the people. No sooner was the order carried into execution than the infuriated mob stormed the palace, massacred without mercy all whom they found in it, and destroyed the furniture. About five thousand persons, seven hundred of whom were Swiss guards, fell victims to the rage of the mob.

The bloody event of the 10th of August was the death-blow to the monarchy in France. In the meantime the Legislative Assembly, at the demand of the triumphant mob, and at the proposal of Vergniaud, the president of that body suspended the royal authority, and issued a call for the assembling of a National Convention on the 22d of September, 1792. On August 13 (1792) the king and his family were imprisoned in the temple, a gloomy old building, which had once belonged to the Knights-Templars; and the Paris Commune virtually ruled France. After the king had been deprived of his authority, the assembly appointed a new Ministry with the Girondist Roland at its head. The frightful Danton held the office of Minister of Justice. The Ministry and the Common Council of Paris, which appointed pikemen to the police of the capital, managed everything their own way.

A *Committee of Safety* under the presidency of Marat was established, which inaugurated an infamous system of espionage and domiciliary visitation for the purpose of detecting conspiracies against the state. A *Revolutionary Tribunal* of nine judges was created to try persons accused of conspiracy against the state, and it was governed by martial law, while its decisions were final.

Lafayette, who had hastened to Paris after the insurrection of June for the purpose of saving the king, if possible, was now ordered to appear before the Assembly to answer for his conduct. Rightly believing that the Jacobins were resolved upon his destruction, Lafayette fled into the Austrian Netherlands with the intention of escaping to America; but he was seized by the Austrians, who kept him a prisoner for five years in the dungeons of Magdeburg and Olnütz. Talleyrand fled to England, and thence to America, where he remained until the sanguinary period of the Revolution was over, when he returned to his native country.

The capture of Longwy and Verdun by the Prussians infuriated the Parisians. Danton declared it necessary to crush all opposition by striking terror into the Royalists at home, and three thousand persons were arrested and imprisoned in one night, August 30, 1792. It had been determined from the first to put these prisoners to death; and at three o'clock in the morning of September 2 (1792) the tocsin was sounded; whereupon three hundred hired assassins, under the direction of Marat, Danton and Robespierre, broke open the prisons and commenced a frightful massacre of the unfortunate inmates. Twenty-four priests who refused to take the Revolutionary oath were cut to pieces. During the massacres, the assassins, stained with blood, established courts for the trial of their victims; and the fate of each was decided in the course of a few minutes.

By these five days' September massacres (September 2-7, 1792) about three thousand persons were massacred in the different prisons of Paris; women, children, paupers and lunatics being slaughtered for no other conceivable reason than a thirst for blood. The *Reign of Terror* had fairly begun; and the *guillotine*, an instrument for beheading, named in derision after Dr. Guillotin, a member of the Legislative Assembly, was set up beneath the windows of the king's prison. Among its first victims was the Princess de Lamballe, the friend of Queen

Marie Antoinette. A band of pikemen held the head of the murdered princess upon a pole before the window of the queen, who fell into frightful convulsions at the horrid spectacle. The same bloody scenes were enacted at Meaux, Rheims, Lyons and Orleans. The monarchy in France was now completely overthrown, and the French Legislative Assembly ended its sittings on the 20th of September, 1792.



THE GUILLOTINE.

The French Legislative Assembly was succeeded by a National Convention, which assembled at Paris on the 22d of September, 1792. On the very first day of its meeting, the Convention decreed that royalty was abolished in France, and a Republic was proclaimed. The Convention also enacted that time, instead of being reckoned from the birth of Christ, should thereafter be reckoned from the 22d of September, 1792, the birthday of the French Republic. All titles were abolished, and men were to be called *citizen* and women *citizeness*. The Convention also condemned the Emigrants to perpetual banishment, and threatened them with death if they returned to France or were taken in arms. One of the members of the Convention was Thomas Paine, who had come to France to aid the Revolution, as he had before gone to help the establishment

of liberty in America, and who had written a work entitled the *Rights of Man* in support of the French Revolution, thus replying to Edmund Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution*.

Although the Girondists and the Mountain had united in the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of the French Republic, the most bitter feeling was now manifested between these two Revolutionary parties. The National Convention, having been elected by universal suffrage, was composed almost exclusively of members belonging to one or the other of these republican parties. The Girondists, who were the more moderate or conservative party, were superior to their opponents in numbers and in ability.

The Mountain, or Jacobin party, exerted greater influence through the audacity of its members and the support of the Paris Commune and the Paris mob. After overthrowing existing institutions, the Jacobins sought to found a new system of *Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité*, "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity." Acting upon the principle that "he who is not for us is against us," this extreme party sought to crush all opposition by violence and bloodshed. The party of the Mountain soon obtained the mastery through its strength in the Jacobin clubs and the wild bands of *Sans Culottes*, who were kept in a constant state of excitement by such Revolutionary songs as the *Marseillaise* and the *Ca ira*, by Revolution festivals, Trees of Liberty, etc.

On the 20th of September, 1792, the Prussian army which had advanced into Champagne was defeated by the French under Dumouriez and Kellerman in the battle of Valmy. After this battle the Prussians agreed to evacuate the French territories, and retreated to the Rhine. The French army under Custine then advanced into Germany to the Rhine and captured Treves, Spire and Mayence. The French Assembly declared war against King Victor Amadeus III. of Sardinia, September 10, 1792. General Montesquieu invaded Savoy, and General Anselm occupied Nice. The French

Republic afterward declared these provinces annexed to its territory.

Meanwhile the Austrians who had invaded France from the Austrian Netherlands were also obliged to retreat, and were pursued by the French army under Dumouriez across the frontier into the Austrian Netherlands. On the 6th of November, 1792, Dumouriez won a decisive victory over the Austrians in the battle of Jemappes, which gave the French possession of the Austrian Netherlands, and in which the French stormed the Austrian intrenchments to the chant of the *Marseillaise*. The French soldiers fought for liberty, the allied troops for pay.

The French victory of Jemappes was largely due to the revolutionary spirit of the people of the Austrian Netherlands, who under French influence immediately renounced their allegiance to the House of Hapsburg and again proclaimed the Belgian Republic.

Amid the excitement occasioned by the victories of Dumouriez, the National Convention resolved that every French general should proclaim the sovereignty of the people and the overthrow of monarchy in any county that he should invade, and that he should treat as enemies any people who should refuse *Liberté, Égalité, Fraternité*. In violation of the Treaties of Münster and Fontainebleau, the National Convention declared the Scheldt open, and French warships forced a passage up that river to bombard Antwerp. The French Republic thus asserted itself the arbiter of international law, even ignoring treaties confirmed by previous French governments.

One great design of the Jacobins was to take away the life of "Louis Capet," as the king was now called. They accused him of conspiracy against the French Republic and of a treasonable correspondence with foreign powers. An iron safe had been found in a wall in the Tuileries, containing secret letters and documents, thus showing that the French court had not only been in alliance with Austria and with the Emigrants, and had planned the overthrow of

the Constitution that Louis XVI. had sworn to observe, but that it had also endeavored to win the support of members of the National Assembly by bribery, by pensions and by other means. The discussion on the king's trial began November 13, 1792.

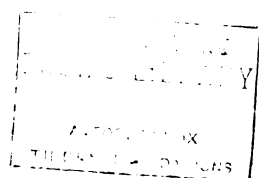
After a long and fierce discussion between the Mountain and the Gironde, the National Convention decreed that "Louis Capet" should be brought before the Convention for trial; and the accusation against him was read December 10, 1792. The main charges were that he had instigated foreign powers to invade France, that he had caused the capture of Longwy and Verdun by the Prussians by his neglect of the army, and that he had provoked the insurrection of the 10th of August for the purpose of sacrificing the lives of his subjects.

The king's dethronement when the Republic was proclaimed by the National Convention should have barred all the accusations against him; but this was not a time for legal technicalities or calm judgment to have any weight, when France was in the throes of the mightiest revolution that the world had ever seen. Robespierre appealed to the popular will. Said he: "What have not the friends of liberty to fear when they see the ax unsteady in your grasp and detect a regret for your past fetters, even after your emancipation?"

The Jacobins were themselves convinced of the illegality of their proceedings against the king. In demanding his death, Robespierre and the orator St. Just relied solely on reasons of state. Said Robespierre: "There is no trial contemplated. Louis is not accused. You are not his judges. You are and can only be statesmen. You have not to pronounce a sentence for or against a man; but you have a measure of public safety to adopt—an act of national care to undertake. A dethroned king in a republic can only do two things. Either he troubles the tranquillity of the state and endangers its liberty, or he adds security to both. Louis was king. The republic is founded. The great question which occupies you is decided in these few words: Louis is not to



PLACE DE LA CONCORDE, PARIS.



be tried. He has been tried already. He is condemned, or the Republic is not absolute."

When Louis XVI. was brought before the bar of the National Convention as a criminal, December 10, 1792, he asked for counsel; and, when one whom he had selected declined through fear, the venerable Malesherbes volunteered his services, and Deseze and Tronchet also assisted in the king's defense. Said Malesherbes: "I have been twice called to assist at his council-table when such a summons was an object of ambition to every one. I owe him the same service now that it is a function that many persons would consider dangerous." The king's defense was conducted with great skill and ability by his counsel—Deseze, Tronchet and Malesherbes—after which a long and earnest discussion arose. Robespierre said: "The last proof of devotion which we owe to our country is to stifle in our hearts every sentiment of sensibility."

After a trial of twenty days the unfortunate monarch was declared guilty by an almost unanimous vote of the Convention. The Girondists rightly endeavored to have the question of the king's punishment referred to the French people; but the Jacobins prevented it, and caused a resolution to be passed by the Convention declaring that a bare majority, and not a two-thirds vote, should be necessary for the condemnation of the king. The Convention next proceeded to prescribe the mode of the king's punishment. The savage mob surrounding the Convention heaped menaces upon all who dared to be merciful, thus frightening the Girondists who desired to save the king's life. The voting lasted ten days; and each deputy rose as his name was called, and voted for death, exile or imprisonment. Finally, on January 20, 1793, Vergniaud, the president of the Convention, with a voice of emotion, announced the result, which was that the National Convention by a bare majority of twenty-six out of seven hundred and twenty-one votes sentenced "Louis Capet" to death within twenty-four hours.

Among those who voted for the king's death was his own cousin, Philip, Duke of Orleans, a dissolute character, who had taken an active part in the Revolution as a Jacobin leader, and who had assumed the title of Philippe *Egalité*, "Equality." Thomas Paine voted against the king's death, as did the Girondists generally, but they were unable to overrule the fiery Jacobins.

Louis requested the attendance of the Abbé Edgeworth to administer the offices of religion to him in his last moments—a request which was granted. He was also granted a last interview with his family, from whom he had been separated for some time; but the keepers required that the meeting should take place in a hall with a glass door giving a view of the interior. The king entered the apartment at eight in the evening of January 20, 1793. A door opened at half past eight, when his wife Marie Antoinette, his sister Elizabeth and his two children entered, casting themselves into his arms with sobs. After a long and sad interview, Louis arose, and, after a most heart-rendering farewell, departed.

Toward midnight the king slept soundly, and did so until five in the morning of the fatal day, when the Abbé Edgeworth administered the Sacrament to him. At eight o'clock in the morning, January 21, 1793, the brewer Santerre arrived to take the king to the place of execution. The king entered the carriage with the officers; and the sad procession moved between two lines of soldiers guarding the streets, and arrived at the place of execution in the Place de la Revolution at half past ten o'clock, January 21, 1793. The procession had moved in silence, no signs of approbation or regret being noticeable.

Louis XVI. left the carriage and ascended the scaffold with a firm step. Looking around at the vast multitude, he exclaimed: "Frenchmen, I die innocent; I forgive my enemies!" He was prevented from saying more by the noise of the drums which the brewer Santerre ordered to be beaten for the purpose of drowning his voice. Three executioners then seized hold of the king and



LOUIS XVI. TAKING LEAVE OF HIS FAMILY BEFORE HIS EXECUTION.

tied his hands. The king then laid his head upon the block, and the Abbé Edgeworth exclaimed: "Son of St. Louis, ascend to heaven!" Down came the axe of the guillotine, and the head that had worn a crown was severed from the body. The executioner holding aloft the king's bloody, dissevered head, exclaimed: "Vive la République!" Most of the spectators wept at the sad spectacle. His body, without being put into a coffin, was laid in a plain grave; and quicklime was spread over it to hasten the decomposition. Thus perished one of the kindest and most virtuous monarchs that ever wore a crown. The memory of his infamous regicides will ever be held in execration by an impartial posterity.

Louis XVI. was in the thirty-ninth year of his age and the nineteenth of his reign when brought to so ill-fated an end. His brother, the Count of Provence, then in exile from his native land, declared himself regent for the unfortunate king's little son, the Dauphin, whom the royalists recognized as Louis XVII., and who was still imprisoned in the Temple.

The execution of Louis XVI. aroused a feeling of horror and indignation throughout Europe, and was regarded by the crowned heads of Europe as a general menace to all the monarchies of the world. The French were looked upon as anarchists and as the common enemies of mankind. The National Convention, intoxicated with the victories of General Dumouriez, had issued a proclamation offering the aid of the French Republic to all nations that would overthrow their monarchical governments and establish republican forms in their stead; the Convention's president, Vergniaud, having declared: "All governments are our enemies; all peoples are our allies."

In this crisis of peril to the established monarchical, aristocratic and ecclesiastical institutions of Europe, the other European governments made common cause. Early in 1793 almost all the crowned heads of Europe formed a coalition against the French Republic. The French ambassadors were ordered to leave the various European

courts, and French citizens residing or traveling in the various European countries were arrested or expelled.

The National Convention did not wait to be attacked, but, resolving to anticipate the designs of the enemies of the French Republic by taking the first step, declared war against the *rulers* of England, Holland and Spain, in February, 1793, thus implying that the people of those countries had a different interest from that of their rulers. It was clearly understood on both sides that this was to be a life-and-death struggle between royalty and republicanism in Europe, and the National Convention ordered a levy of half a million men for the impending conflict.

The First Coalition against Revolutionary France embraced England, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Austria, Prussia, the German Empire and the Italian states. England, under her illustrious Prime Minister, the second William Pitt, kept in power by the Tories, headed the European Coalition, and furnished her Continental allies with large subsidies. After many vain efforts to preserve peace, Pitt had been forced into the war against the French Republic by the aggressive action of the French themselves and by the public sentiment in England which Edmund Burke had created by voice and pen against the French Revolution—a result which led Burke to separate himself from his old political and personal friend, Charles James Fox, the leader of the liberal Whigs.

The confiscated wealth of Church and State provided the French Republic with greater wealth than even Louis XIV. had at his command. The war thus commenced continued almost without intermission for a period of over twenty years, and taxed the energies of Europe more severely than any other struggle recorded in history. But when the conflict began each party underrated the resources of the other, and Mr. Pitt expected to see the war ended in a campaign or two.

Upon the capture of Mayence by the French under General Custine, October 21,

1792, the French garrison had been welcomed with enthusiasm by the inhabitants, who had been deserted by their Archbishop-Elector, their clergy and nobility, before the capture of the city; and a powerful republican party in Mayence, under the leadership of George Foster, an English circumnavigator of the globe, advocated the principles of liberty and equality proclaimed by the French Republic. In March, 1793, the Prussians recaptured Mayence, which only surrendered after a long and obstinate defense, during which the garrison and the inhabitants endured the horrors of famine. The triumphant Prussians again approached the French frontiers; as did the English, Dutch, Austrians, Hanoverians and other German troops.

After the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands, General Dumouriez had made great efforts to save the king's life, to defeat the Jacobins and to restore the constitutional monarchy. During the debate in the National Convention on the fate of Louis XVI., Dumouriez returned to Paris and exerted himself actively to prevent the king's execution. Seeing the hopelessness of these efforts, he returned to his army, invaded Holland and seized Breda, Klundert and Gertruydenberg. He was followed by Jacobin spies.

An Austrian army under the Prince of Coburg, assisted by Clairfait and the Archduke Charles, defeated the French army under Dumouriez in the battle of Neerwinden, March 18, 1793. Dumouriez ascribed this defeat to the Jacobins, whom he accused of having corrupted the army. Disgusted with the violence of the Jacobins, he entered into a treaty with the Austrian commanders for the overthrow of the French Republic and the reëstablishment of the constitutional monarchy in France with the Duke de Chartres, afterward King Louis Philippe, the eldest son of the infamous Philip Egalité, Duke of Orleans, as king.

The Jacobin spies in Dumouriez's army transmitted the news of his treasonable proceedings to Paris, and the National Convention impeached him and sent four commis-

sioners into his camp to arrest him and bring him to Paris; but Dumouriez seized the commissioners of the Convention and delivered them as prisoners to the Austrians. He then appealed to his army to follow him in a march upon Paris to rescue France from the tyranny of the National Convention; but his troops deserted him, and he fled to the Austrian camp for refuge. He was never permitted to return to France.

In the meantime, while France was threatened on all her frontiers with foreign enemies, the deadly strife between the Mountain and the Gironde was fast bringing matters to a crisis. On March 10, 1793, a new *Revolutionary Tribunal* was established, consisting of twelve jurymen and five judges, to decide without appeal the fate of all persons accused of crimes against "liberty, equality and the indivisibility of the Republic." On May 27, 1793, a *Committee of Public Safety* was established, consisting of nine members and invested with dictatorial powers.

The Mountain made use of Dumouriez's treachery to overthrow the Gironde, to which party Dumouriez had belonged. For the purpose of putting a stop to the violence of the mob in Paris and destroying the domination of the capital, the Girondists endeavored to erect France into a federal republic. The Jacobins seeing that this scheme, carried into effect, would weaken their power, violently opposed the project, and determined to prevent it by the destruction of the Girondist leaders. The Jacobins accused the Girondists of having an understanding with Dumouriez in his treason to the Republic, and reproached them with weakening the power of the French people and destroying the Republic at a time when France was menaced with internal and external foes. When the eloquence of the Girondists repelled the charges of the Jacobins, the savage Marat, in his violent journal, *Ami du Peuple*, "The Friend of the People," called upon the mob of Paris to rise against the moderate and the lukewarm, thus inciting daily riots and tumults in the capital, which menaced the life and prop-



THE BREAD RIOTERS IN THE HALL OF THE CONVENTION



CHARLOTTE CORDAY LED TO EXECUTION.

erty of all moderate and reputable people.

The Girondists caused Marat to be arrested and brought before a court of justice for disturbing the public peace, but he was acquitted by the Jacobins and carried back to the Convention in triumph by the Paris mob. Through the efforts of the Gironde, the Convention appointed a Commission of Twelve to detect and punish those who had incited the riots and tumults. Hebert, the Procureur of the Paris Commune, in his vulgar and libellous journal, *Père Duchesne*, excited the populace to acts of violence and murder; whereupon he and some of his accomplices were imprisoned by order of the Commission of Twelve; but the raging mob compelled their release.

The great insurrections of May 31 and June 2, 1793, were brought about by Hebert and by the leading members of the National Convention—Marat, Danton and Robespierre. Headed by the infamous Henriot—who had been successively a laquay, a smuggler and spy of the police, and who was now made commander of the National Guard—a mob of eighty thousand Sans-Culottes surrounded the Tuileries, in which the National Convention was in session, and demanded with menaces the abolition of the Commission of Twelve and the exclusion of the Girondists and the moderates. The Girondists made vain efforts to prevent the Convention from complying with the demands of the raging mob. When the majority of the Convention, seeing themselves deprived of the freedom of their deliberations, attempted to retire from the hall, with their courageous president, Herault, at their head, they were forced back by the mob under Henriot, and compelled to comply with the demands of the San-Culottes and the Mountain and thus yield to mob violence.

Thereupon thirty-two Girondist deputies were seized and imprisoned, and seventy-three others were expelled from the Convention for protesting against the arrest and incarceration of their fellow-members. Twenty of those who were imprisoned—Pétion and Barbaroux among the number—escaped to Normandy and Brittany, as did

many of those who had been expelled from the Convention. Proceeding to Caen, in Normandy, they placed themselves at the head of a counter-revolution which had already broke out in the West of France. These expelled Girondist deputies set up a rival government at Caen, raised an army under General Wimpffen, and opened communications with Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulon, Nismes, Montauban, and other cities in the South of France which had risen in arms against the National Convention and the Jacobin leaders.

Charlotte Corday, a young and beautiful heroine, went from Caen to Paris to avenge the fate of the Girondist leaders and to save the Republic by the assassination of Marat, whom she regarded as the author of the insurrection of May 31 and June 2. She was a young maiden of genius and exalted character and a warm partisan of the Gironde. Upon arriving at Paris, Charlotte Corday obtained admission to the house of Marat, and stabbed him to the heart. She made no attempt to escape, and was sentenced to death by the Revolutionary Tribunal. She met death by the guillotine bravely, and with the satisfaction of having performed what she considered a noble action. Said she: "I have killed one man to save a hundred thousand—a depraved wretch to save the innocent—a ferocious monster to procure peace to my country. I was a republican before the Revolution, and I never wanted energy."

But Marat became an object of greater enthusiasm and admiration to the Revolutionary multitude after his assassination than he had been during his lifetime. Blasphemous honors were paid to his memory; his name was invoked in the public squares; his bust was seen in all the popular assemblies; the National Convention was forced to grant him the honors of the Pantheon; and his heart, deposited in an agate vase, was placed on an altar, and surrounded with flowers and the smoke of incense.

After the expulsion of the Girondist deputies, the Girondist party in the National Convention was broken up, and the Conven-

tion was thereafter completely under the control of the sanguinary party of the Mountain with Robespierre and Danton at their head, so that nothing was for a time able to withstand their violence. France felt the terrible consequences of the victory of the Jacobins, and thereafter there seemed no hope for the unhappy country.

While the French National Convention was engaged in suppressing numerous insurrections against its authority and against the Revolutionary power, during the year

1793, the armies of almost all the other nations of Europe were in the field against the French Republic. English, Dutch and Austrian armies were on the northern frontier; Prussian, Austrian and German armies had crossed the Rhine on the east; the Sardinians threatened France on the south east; and the Spanish and the Portuguese forces occupied the Pyrenees on the south-west.

Infuriated by an increase of the armies of the European Coalition against Revolutionary France, both upon the northern and southern frontiers of the Republic, and by the revolts in the West and South of France, the National Convention proceeded to the most vigorous measures. The district of La Vendée, the provinces of Brittany and Normandy, and the cities of Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulon, Nismes and Montauban, were all in revolt against the Convention; and at one time seventy out of the

eighty-three Departments of France were in a state of insurrection; but the tremendous energy of the Paris Revolutionists finally broke the power of this formidable league.

The Convention ordered a levy *en-masse* of all the citizens of France to repel foreign invasion. Said Danton: "Let us respond to the call. It is by the sound of cannon that the constitution must be proclaimed to our foes. The time is come for that great and final vow by which we devote ourselves to death or the annihilation of tyrants!"

After the vow had been taken, the orator Barrere, in the name of the Committee of Public Safety, proposed rigorous measures, which were adopted by the Convention. All the youth of France from the age of eighteen to twenty-five years took up arms, and ere long the Republic had fourteen armies amounting to twelve hundred thousand men.

Terror was brought into operation to provide for the

maintenance and subsistence of these armies. The middle classes were overwhelmed by violent and multiplied requisitions, death being the penalty of resistance. The National Convention passed a *Law against the Suspected*, which destroyed the last vestige of personal security and placed the life of every person in France at the disposal of the Revolutionary populace and their blood-thirsty leaders.

The Committee of Public Safety was com-



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posed of ten of the extreme leaders of the Mountain; Robespierre, Couthon, St. Just, Collot d'Herbois, Billand-Varennes, Barrere and Carnot being the most prominent members of the committee. The envious and malignant Robespierre, the bloodthirsty Couthon and the fanatical republican St. Just formed a terrible triumvirate in the very heart of the committee. Carnot took no active part in the proscriptions, but directed his genius to the management of the military affairs. The Revolutionary Tribunal, consisting of twelve jurymen and five judges, seconded the activity of the Committee of Public Safety by a cruel administration of justice; and that bloodhound, Fouquier Tinville, held the office of public accuser.

The National Convention was now nothing more than an assembly of executioners and assassins. To hoodwink and deceive the French people, the Convention submitted for their approval the plan of a constitution drawn up by Herault de Sechelles, June 24, 1793; according to which the Primary Assemblies of the people were to exercise the sovereignty and to deliberate on all legislative measures; but the whole power was in the hands of the Committee of Public Safety after the fall of the Girondists. For a time Danton and Camille Desmoulins, as chiefs of the Cordeliers club, had the most influence; but these men were soon supplanted by Robespierre, Couthon and St. Just, the chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety. The *Constitution of the Year I.*, adopted by the Convention on the 24th of June, 1793, had been ratified by the Primary Assemblies; but on August 28th of the same year Robespierre, as head of the Committee of Public Safety, decreed that it should be suspended, as the Republic was in a state of revolution until peace was restored.

During the *Reign of Terror*, in 1793-'94, unhappy France—torn by factions, rent by civil war, invaded by foreign enemies, threatened with famine, suffering from bankruptcy, cursed with atheism—presented a picture beyond our powers of description.

The Committee of Public Safety, the Revolutionary Tribunal, the Paris Commune, the Revolutionary committees, the Jacobin clubs and the bloodthirsty Sans-Culottes, disposed of the lives of all who were opposed or indifferent to the cause of *Liberté, Égalité, Fraternité*. Royalists, Girondists, aristocrats, the wealthy, the refined, the educated, and all suspected persons, were in constant danger. The frightful Law against the Suspected was rigorously enforced against all "enemies of the country;" and two hundred thousand suspected persons were arrested throughout France and imprisoned, and led in crowds to the guillotine daily in Paris and in the other large cities of France. Thus while France became a camp for one portion of its people it became a prison for another portion.

The neglect of agriculture and the ruin of the public credit threatened to tear the unhappy country to pieces. Each needy person received forty sous per day for attending the assemblies of his Section. Certificates of citizenship were distributed, and each Section had its Revolutionary committees and its Sans-Culottes.

The guillotine was used as an incentive to patriotism, and the National Convention placed the alternative of victory or death before its generals. General Beauharnais was guillotined for his failure to arrive in time to prevent the recapture of Mayence by the Prussians. General Custine suffered the same fate for his retreat from the Rhine before the superior forces of the Austrians and Prussians and for his failure to prevent the capture of Valenciennes and Condé by the Austrians under Clairfait. General Houchard, who had defeated the English under the Duke of York at Hondtschoot, perished in the same manner for afterward retreating before the superior force of the enemy. General Biron was likewise guillotined for being defeated by the Vendean insurgents.

The ex-queen Marie Antoinette—"the Widow Capet," as the Jacobins called her—was brought to trial on charges which were false and malignant so far as they affected

her character. During her trial she displayed a firmness and strength of character worthy of her education and her high birth. She was led to the guillotine October 16, 1793, and died with heroism and resignation. Her son, the youthful Louis XVII., died beneath the cruel treatment of his Jacobin jailors. Her daughter, the Duchess of Angoulême, died with a broken heart.

The heroic Bailly, the old Mayor of Paris, died by the guillotine a few days after the queen. The twenty-one proscribed Girondists were guillotined October 31, 1793, and they advanced to death singing the *Marseillaise*. Those Girondist leaders who had escaped from Paris to the provinces were hunted to death with tiger-like ferocity. Madame Roland—who was looked upon as the soul of the Girondist party, and at whose house the Girondist leaders were accustomed to meeting—was also condemned to death; and on being led to the guillotine she exclaimed: "O, Liberty! what crimes are committed in thy name!" Her husband committed suicide on hearing the news of her execution. Pétion, Barbaroux, Condorcet and other Girondist leaders also died by their own hands. Thomas Paine, who had incurred the hatred of the Jacobins, was compelled to flee for his life.

The infamous Philippe Egalité, Duke of Orleans, who had been one of the most violent Jacobins, had incurred the wrath of the malignant Robespierre; and even Danton was unable to save him. He was accordingly led to the guillotine November 7, 1793, amid the execration of all parties. He also died bravely. Madame du Barri, the former mistress of Louis XV., experienced the same fate; as did also Barnave.

So frequent were the executions that death lost its terrors. The malicious slander of an enemy, the accusation of a spy, the hatred of a Sans-Culotte, were sufficient to bring an innocent person to prison, and from prison to the guillotine. All France seemed to be turned into a hell, and its Jacobin rulers into fiends. Amid this carnival of blood and terror women sat and knit without the least concern.

The National Convention abolished the Gregorian calendar and the names of the months and days; as it had already abolished the Christian era and made the new era date from the 22d of September, 1792, the birthday of the French Republic. The year was divided into twelve months of thirty days each. The remaining five days were called *sans-culottides*, and were consecrated to genius, to labor, to actions, etc.

Infidelity and atheism reigned supreme. The National Convention abolished the Sabbath, and the leaders of the Paris Commune declared that they intended "to dethrone the King of Heaven as well as the monarchs of the earth." Finally, November 10, 1793, the leaders of the Paris Commune—Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro and the Prussian Anacharsis Clootz—prevailed upon the National Convention to decree the abolition of the Christian religion in France and the substitution of the worship of Reason instead. Momoro's young and beautiful but prostitute wife, who had been a dancer, personated the Goddess of Reason; and as such she was enthroned on the high altar of the Cathedral of Notre Dame and worshiped by the members of the National Convention and the Paris Commune.

Gobel, the constitutional Bishop of Paris, and several other ecclesiastics were compelled publicly to apostatize from Roman Catholic Christianity and to accept the new worship of Reason. While the Cathedral of Notre Dame was thus profaned by being converted into a temple of atheism, the other Catholic churches were plundered and subjected to every kind of sacrilege, and the mass vestments and church ornaments and implements were carried through the streets in blasphemous processions. Over all the public cemeteries was placed the inscription: "Death is an eternal sleep." The tombs of the French kings at St. Denis were violated, and the remains of the dead monarchs were cast into a common ditch, so that the people might forget every vestige of royalty. Such were the crowning acts of that Reign of Terror which cost the lives of more than a million Frenchmen.

While the most shocking excesses were perpetrated by the French republicans, and while the armies of almost all the other European nations were on the French frontiers, the royalists and Girondists had risen in

trict of La Vendée, in the West of France, was the seat of a bloody civil war.

In their primitive simplicity and rural quietude, the inhabitants of La Vendée, who had preserved their feudal customs and pre-

THE FIRM OF REASON.



various parts of France to oppose the National Convention, the Jacobin clubs, the Revolutionary committees and the bloodthirsty Sans-Culottes. The beautiful dis-

judices, and who had always been firmly attached to their king and their landlords, their clergy and church usages, had opposed the Revolution from the beginning, and

were intensely enraged by the banishment or murder of their unsworn priests and by their king's cruel death by the guillotine. Finally, when the National Convention ordered a levy *en masse* to repel foreign invasion, the peasants of La Vendée flew to arms against the Republic; and, under such brave leaders as the wagoner Cathelineau, the gamekeeper Stofflet, the naval officer Charette, and the nobles Larochejacquelin, D'Elbée and Bonchamps, they entered the field in the royalist cause.

The Vendéans defeated the troops of the line and the National Guard which marched against them, overthrowing the republican generals in succession simply by their passionate bravery. They raised three armies of from ten to twelve thousand men each—the Army of Anjou, under Bonchamps, on the banks of the Loire; the Grand Army of the Centre, under D'Elbée; and the Army of the Marsh, under Charette, occupying Lower Vendée.

By June, 1793, the Vendéans had possession of Bressuire, Argenton and Thouars. Forty thousand of their troops won a brilliant victory at Saumur, on the south bank of the Loire, in the old province of Anjou, capturing eighty pieces of cannon, ten thousand muskets and eleven thousand prisoners, June 9, 1793; but they were repulsed in their attack on Nantes, where their brave leader, Cathelineau, was mortally wounded, June 29, 1793. They then fell back beyond the Loire, and defeated in succession the republican armies under Biron, Rossignol and Canclaux, whom they drove back with heavy loss.

Thereupon the National Convention sent an army of two hundred thousand men into La Vendée under Westermann and such frantic Jacobins as Ronsin and Rossignol; but the republican forces were defeated in detail—seventeen thousand men of the old French garrison of Mayence, under the command of Kleber, being defeated near Torfou; and before the close of September the republican forces were driven out of La Vendée.

The National Convention again made the

most vigorous exertions to suppress the Vendean insurrection. The republican forces under Westermann, Beysser, L'Echelle, Kleber, Marceau, Ronsin and Rossignol overran La Vendée and ravaged the district with fire and sword, sparing neither age nor sex. Towns, villages and woods were set on fire by the invaders, who sought to crush the Vendéans by terror and outrage. Kleber's veterans finally overcame the Vendean insurgents, who were beaten four times at Chatillon and Cholet, where their principal leaders were wounded.

Surrounded on every side by their triumphant enemies, the heroic Vendéans appealed for aid to the English, who demanded, as a preliminary to sending relief, that the Vendéans should possess themselves of some seaport. Thereupon a hundred thousand Vendéans, including old men, women and children, crossed the Loire into Brittany, October 17–19, 1793, and marched toward Granville with the hope of obtaining supplies from England.

On the very day that the orator Barrere announced in the National Convention that "the war is ended and La Vendée is no more," the Vendéans defeated the republican troops at Chateau Gontier with a loss of twelve thousand men and nineteen pieces of cannon. This republican disaster caused intense consternation in Paris, as nothing remained to prevent the victorious Vendean royalists from advancing on the capital.

After their great victory the Vendéans proceeded to the coast and laid siege to Granville, but were repulsed from that seaport by their want of artillery and were compelled to retreat with heavy loss. They were routed at Mans, December 10, 1793, and were entirely destroyed in an effort to recross the Loire at Savenay, December 22, 1793, where they fought with unyielding valor to the very last, slowly melting away in the midst of their foes. Out of the hundred thousand Vendéans who crossed the Loire into Brittany, scarcely three thousand returned to La Vendée; and most of these were captured by their pursuers, or perished on the scaffold.

Charette continued his resistance to the republican forces; but the island of Noirmoutiers was taken from him, January 2, 1794, the brave D'Elbée being there taken prisoner. Charette was afterward defeated at Machecoul, and the valiant Laroche-jacquelin was assassinated.

La Vendée was reduced to submission for the time, and a system of extermination was commenced against the vanquished inhabitants. General Thureau surrounded the conquered province with sixteen intrenched camps and twelve movable columns known as the *infernal columns*, and traversed the country with fire and sword. The National Convention had in the meantime assigned the work of vengeance to a wretch named Carrier, whose drownings of Vendéans at Nantes were so constant that the waters of the Loire became poisoned, thus rendering the fish unfit for food; and no less than fifteen thousand persons perished by his orders during the last three months of 1793.

The troops of the National Convention were also engaged in suppressing other frightful insurrections against the Reign of Terror. The inhabitants of Brittany and Normandy had arisen in support of the unfortunate Girondist leaders, but were soon subdued by the Convention's troops, who filled that beautiful region with slaughter and desolation; and, under the direction of Lebon, the guillotine had its thousands of victims at Caen and other places in the North of France.

The royalist and Girondist insurrections in the South of France had their centers at Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles and Toulon. Bordeaux was speedily reduced to submission, August 25, 1793; and, under the direction of Tallien, the guillotine did its frightful executions in that beautiful city. General Carteaux suppressed the revolt in Marseilles, and the most frightful executions followed there also.

The revolt at Lyons was caused by the conduct of Chalier, who had formerly been a priest, and who was then president of the Jacobin club of that city. He excited

the populace of Lyons by scandalous placards to plunder and destroy the "aristocrats." This instigation to violence exasperated the wealthy and respectable people of Lyons, and they caused the demagogue to be executed, July 16, 1793. This deed aroused the fury of the terrorists at Paris, and the enraged National Convention soon surrounded Lyons with a powerful army under Kellerman. The royalists and Girondists of Lyons defended their city to the last extremity. After a vigorous siege of several months, Lyons surrendered to the besieging republican army of sixty thousand men under Doppet, Kellerman's successor, October 9, 1793. The conquered city suffered a terrible punishment for its revolt.

The orator Barrere prevailed upon the National Convention to issue an anathema against Lyons. In this speech Barrere said that the name of Lyons ought to be blotted out, that the city should be called *Commune Affranchie*, and that a monument should be erected upon the ruins of the rebellious city to commemorate the crime and punishment of the enemies of liberty, with the inscription: "Lyons made war on liberty. Lyons is no more." The bloodhounds Fréron, Fouché, Couthon and Collot d'Herbois, who were intrusted by the National Convention with the execution of its decrees against Lyons, caused the finest buildings of the beautiful city to be utterly demolished, and caused the inhabitants to be mown down in crowds with grape and canister in the public squares. During the five months after the surrender of the city, over six thousand of the people of Lyons were guillotined, and more than twelve thousand were exiled.

The royalists of Toulon proclaimed Louis XVII., August 29, 1793, and were assisted in their defense by the English and Spanish fleets under Admirals Hood and Langara, which had been cruising off their coast when the revolt broke out. The city was soon besieged by the republican army under General Carteaux. Confident in the aid of their English and Spanish allies, and in the strength of their walls, the royalists of Toulon bade defiance to the republican troops.

But the army of Saus-Culottes which besieged the city overcame all resistance.

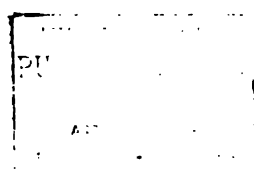
The artillery of the republican army besieging Toulon was directed by the young Corsican Napoleon Bonaparte, who now for the first time exhibited his great military talents. This youth was the son of Charles Bonaparte, a lawyer of Ajaccio, in Corsica, and was born in 1769, the very year in which Corsica came into the possession of France. He was educated at the military school at Brienne, in France, and was a young lieutenant of artillery when the struggle between Revolutionary France and the crowned heads of Europe broke out. By the exertions of this young Corsican officer, a fort commanding the harbor of Toulon was taken, thus rendering the town untenable; whereupon the English and Spanish fleets speedily evacuated the city, taking with them over fourteen thousand of the unfortunate inhabitants, December 20, 1793; and the republican army under General Carteaux took Toulon by storm, December 24, 1793. Toulon also suffered a frightful punishment from Fréron, who caused all the wealthy citizens to be shot, and divided their property among the Sans-Culottes.

While the French National Convention was thus successful in suppressing the numerous insurrections against its authority during the year 1793, the armies of the French Republic, under the command of its new Jacobin generals, who had been appointed to supersede the Girondist commanders, were everywhere triumphant over the foreign invaders of France. This improvement of the military fortunes of the Republic was the result of the unity and system given to the French military operations after the brave and active Carnot had taken his seat in the Committee of Public Safety. All France was interested in the war by the levy *en masse*, and the newly-acquired freedom awakened courage and enthusiasm among the French troops. The fanatical bands of French troops were now opposed to their allied foes in masses, and no longer in small divisions; while the greatest

commanders of the century rose from the French ranks. The allied generals, with their antiquated tactics and with soldiers who fought for pay, could not maintain their ground against fanatical republican troops who fought for liberty and native land.

On the northern frontier the French army under General Jourdan, the guillotined Houchard's successor, defeated the Austrians under the Prince of Coburg at Wattignies, thus compelling the Austrian force under General Clairfait to raise the siege of Maubeuge. On the Rhine the Prussians, after recapturing Mayence, July 22, 1793, and defeating the French army under Moreau at Pirmasens, September 14, 1793, failed in the siege of Landau. An allied Austrian, Prussian and German imperial army of eighty thousand men under Wurmsers and Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick forced the lines at Weissenburg, October 13, 1793, and marched into Alsace as far as Strasburg, but were driven back by the French army of the Moselle under Generals Hoche and Pichegru. The French army of the Alps under Kellerman was also successful against the Sardinians. On the side of the Pyrenees the Spanish forces under Ricardos and Ventura-Caro gained several advantages; Ricardos taking Bellegarde, Collioure and Port Vendre. Thus the campaign of 1793 ended in the general success of the French arms against the numerous forces of the allies, and the invasion of France on all sides was defeated; while the numerous insurrections against the Revolutionary power were suppressed.

The Revolutionary terrorists were divided into three parties. The Committee of Public Safety, at the head of which stood Robespierre, Couthon and St. Just, supported by the Jacobin club, constituted the "party of justice," and governed with absolute power. The Paris commune, headed by Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro and the Prussian Anarchists Cloutz, formed a second party, consisting of the most ultra-Revolutionists and violent anarchists, who desired still greater excesses of profanation and destruction.





DANTONISTS ON THE ROAD TO EXECUTION.

Danton and Camille Desmoulins, the chiefs of the Cordeliers, headed the "party of clemency," which now became disgusted with the rage and cruelty of the Jacobins, and desired to end the Reign of Terror.

Danton was more of a voluptuary than a tyrant, and was capable of generous feelings. Having grown weary of slaughter, he had retired into the country for a few months with a young wife, to enjoy the wealth and happiness which he had acquired through the Revolution. But Camille Desmoulins, in his widely circulated and much read journal, *The Old Cordelier*, applied the passages in which the Roman historian Tacitus describes the tyranny and cruelty of the Emperor Tiberius to his own times with such appropriateness that there could be no mistake as to its application to the three chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety and the laws against the suspected. This enraged the Jacobins, headed by Robespierre; and, as several of Danton's partisans—Fabre d'Eglantine, Chabot and others—were at this time guilty of deceit and corruption in connection with the abolition of the French East India Company, the Committee of Public Safety, headed by Robespierre, resolved upon the destruction of the whole party of the Dantonists, who were now the "party of clemency."

Before destroying the Dantonists, whom he denounced as lukewarm in the cause of liberty, Robespierre determined upon the annihilation of the faction of the Commune, whom he reproached as anarchists and atheists. In order to effect the overthrow of the Commune, Robespierre and his partisans entered into a temporary alliance with the "party of clemency" headed by Danton and Camille Desmoulins.

When Danton had resumed his seat in the National Convention, St. Just began a violent struggle by a remarkable declaration in which he divided the enemies of the Republic into three classes—the corrupt, the ultra-revolutionary and the moderates—and insisted upon their punishment. This action resulted in bringing Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro, Cloutz, Ronsin and

the other anarchist chiefs of the Commune—nineteen in number—to the guillotine, March 24, 1794.

One week after the execution of the ultra-Revolutionists of the Commune, "the corrupt" were placed before the Revolutionary Tribunal, March 31, 1794; and Danton, Camille Desmoulins, Herault de Sechelles and their partisans were maliciously distinguished as such, and their doom was sealed. But Danton and Camille Desmoulins, supported by a raging mob, vehemently demanded that their accusers should be confronted with them. Danton's voice of thunder and the tumult among the populace prevented his condemnation for three days, and for the first time the bloody monsters of the Revolutionary Tribunal became embarrassed. At length the National Convention summarily gave the Revolutionary Tribunal the power to condemn, without any further hearing, the accused who sought to subvert the Revolutionary power by means of an insurrection. Thereupon Danton, Camille Desmoulins and twelve of their adherents in the National Convention were led to the guillotine, April 5, 1794. They died with courage and resolution. On being dragged to execution, Danton exclaimed: "I drag Robespierre! Robespierre follows me!"

For the next four months the Committee of Public Safety, headed by Robespierre, ruled with the most absolute sway, and the Revolutionary excesses of the Reign of Terror increased throughout France. For some time no voice was raised against the decemvirs composing that terrible Revolutionary committee, and the National Convention decreed that terror and all the virtues were the order of the day. During those four terrible months the power of the Revolutionary committees, the Jacobin clubs and the Sans-Culottes was exercised without restraint; and death became the sole instrument of government.

During this hideous period the Proconsuls Carrier, Lebon and Maignet distinguished themselves by unheard-of atrocities in the provinces—the first at Nantes, the second



DANTONISTS ON THE ROAD TO EXECUTION.

Danton and Camille Desmoulins, the chiefs of the Cordeliers, headed the "party of clemency," which now became disgusted with the rage and cruelty of the Jacobins, and desired to end the Reign of Terror.

Danton was more of a voluptuary than a tyrant, and was capable of generous feelings. Having grown weary of slaughter, he had retired into the country for a few months with a young wife, to enjoy the wealth and happiness which he had acquired through the Revolution. But Camille Desmoulins, in his widely circulated and much read journal, *The Old Cordelier*, applied the passages in which the Roman historian Tacitus describes the tyranny and cruelty of the Emperor Tiberius to his own times with such appropriateness that there could be no mistake as to its application to the three chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety and the laws against the suspected. This enraged the Jacobins, headed by Robespierre; and, as several of Danton's partisans—Fabre d'Eglantine, Chabot and others—were at this time guilty of deceit and corruption in connection with the abolition of the French East India Company, the Committee of Public Safety, headed by Robespierre, resolved upon the destruction of the whole party of the Dantonists, who were now the "party of clemency."

Before destroying the Dantonists, whom he denounced as lukewarm in the cause of liberty, Robespierre determined upon the annihilation of the faction of the Commune, whom he reproached as anarchists and atheists. In order to effect the overthrow of the Commune, Robespierre and his partisans entered into a temporary alliance with the "party of clemency" headed by Danton and Camille Desmoulins.

When Danton had resumed his seat in the National Convention, St. Just began a violent struggle by a remarkable declaration in which he divided the enemies of the Republic into three classes—the corrupt, the ultra-revolutionary and the moderates—and insisted upon their punishment. This action resulted in bringing Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro, Cloutz, Ronsin and

the other anarchist chiefs of the Commune—nineteen in number—to the guillotine, March 24, 1794.

One week after the execution of the ultra-Revolutionists of the Commune, "the corrupt" were placed before the Revolutionary Tribunal, March 31, 1794; and Danton, Camille Desmoulins, Herault de Sechelles and their partisans were maliciously distinguished as such, and their doom was sealed. But Danton and Camille Desmoulins, supported by a raging mob, vehemently demanded that their accusers should be confronted with them. Danton's voice of thunder and the tumult among the populace prevented his condemnation for three days, and for the first time the bloody monsters of the Revolutionary Tribunal became embarrassed. At length the National Convention summarily gave the Revolutionary Tribunal the power to condemn, without any further hearing, the accused who sought to subvert the Revolutionary power by means of an insurrection. Thereupon Danton, Camille Desmoulins and twelve of their adherents in the National Convention were led to the guillotine, April 5, 1794. They died with courage and resolution. On being dragged to execution, Danton exclaimed: "I drag Robespierre! Robespierre follows me!"

For the next four months the Committee of Public Safety, headed by Robespierre, ruled with the most absolute sway, and the Revolutionary excesses of the Reign of Terror increased throughout France. For some time no voice was raised against the decemvirs composing that terrible Revolutionary committee, and the National Convention decreed that terror and all the virtues were the order of the day. During those four terrible months the power of the Revolutionary committees, the Jacobin clubs and the Sans-Culottes was exercised without restraint; and death became the sole instrument of government.

During this hideous period the Proconsuls Carrier, Lebon and Maignet distinguished themselves by unheard-of atrocities in the provinces—the first at Nantes, the second

at Arras, and the third in Orange. In Paris alone the guillotine had fourteen hundred victims during those bloody four months; among whom were the old Marshals de Noailles and de Maille, the Ministers Michaud and Laverdi, the famous mathematician and astronomer Lavoisier, the venerable Malesherbes and his family, D'Epremenil, Thouret and Chapelier, all members of the National or constituent Assembly which had met in 1789, and, finally, the Madame Elizabeth, the angelic sister of Louis XVI., who was guillotined May 10, 1794. Said Collot d'Herbois: "The more the body-social perspires the more healthy it becomes."

Robespierre and St. Just announced their intention to establish the reign of virtue, and associated Couthon with them; and this terrible triumvirate in the very heart of the Committee of Public Safety prepared for its own ruin by its very isolation. Robespierre was well aware that social order must rest on a religious foundation, and he was never an atheist. He accordingly caused a resolution to be passed by the National Convention, in May, 1794, declaring that the French nation recognized the existence of a Supreme Being and the immortality of the soul as truths. He afterward caused the Convention to dedicate festivals to the Supreme Being and to some of the virtues. As his followers considered him the founder of a moral democracy, he acquired supreme power; and he officiated as high-priest at the festival in honor of the Supreme Being, in the Tuileries, on the 20th Prairial, June 9, 1794, which was a day of perfect triumph for him. He marched at the head of the Convention, as its president, carrying flowers and ears of corn, and approached the altar, where he harangued the populace.

On the very next day—21st Prairial, June 10, 1794—Robespierre caused Couthon to propose an execrable law in the National Convention, refusing to accused persons the right to employ counsel, ordering them to be tried in mass instead of singly, and prescribing to juries no other law than that of

their consciences. The Convention passed this monstrous law; yet Fouquier Tinville, the public accuser, and his associates, the judges belonging to the Revolutionary Tribunal, were unable to keep pace with the number of the proscribed. Fifty persons were sent to the guillotine daily in Paris alone. The scaffold was removed to the Faubourg St. Antoine, and a sewer was constructed to receive and carry off the blood of the victims.

The campaign of 1794 had commenced under this system. The Austrians under the Prince of Coburg had marched against the towns on the Somme; and General Pichegru with the French army of the North, numbering fifty thousand men, had planned the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands. He marched into Flanders, supported on the right by General Moreau; while the French army of the Moselle under General Jourdan advanced toward Charleroi to effect a junction with Pichegru's army. The Austrians abandoned their position in great alarm, and Pichegru defeated the English and Dutch under the Duke of York and the Austrians under Clairfait at Courtrai and at Hooglede; while Jourdan defeated the Austrians under the Prince of Coburg in the great battle of Fleurus, June 26, 1794. Thereupon the towns in the Austrian Netherlands surrendered to the French, who thus effected the conquest of those possessions of the House of Hapsburg, and gained possession of the frontier fortresses of Holland by the fall of 1794. In the meantime the French army of the Pyrenees under General Dugommier gained a brilliant victory over the Spaniards under General La Union at Ceret, April 30, 1794, and retook Bellegarde.

After the reduction of Toulon by the republican army, the English fleet under Admiral Hood was invited to Corsica by Pascal Paoli, and on June 18, 1794, took possession of that island, which submitted to Great Britain as an independent kingdom. The British fleet under Lord Howe defeated the French fleet under Admiral Villaret Joyeuse off Ushant, on the western coast of



COSTUME OF FRENCH CITIZEN (1790-1792).



MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNE (1793-1794).



DEPUTY FROM THE COUNCIL OF 500—GALA COSTUME OF THE MEMBERS OF THE DIRECTORY (1794-1799).



**HUSSAR (1796)—CAVALRYMAN OF THE LINE (1796)
—INFANTRY (1796).**

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.



France, June 1, 1794. Most of the French possessions in the West Indies had already been conquered by the English.

The triumvirate in the Committee of Public Safety had already lost the confidence of the populace and of the National Convention. The remaining Dantonists were on the lookout for a favorable moment of attack; and Robespierre increased the number of his enemies, and made himself ridiculous, by his proceedings at the festival in honor of the Supreme Being on the 20th Prairial.

Every life in France was at the mercy of Robespierre, who had caused fourteen hundred persons to be guillotined in less than seven weeks after he had gained absolute control of the Revolutionary Tribunal on the 21st Prairial, June 10, 1794. It was uncertain who were to be the next victims, and several of the most prominent terrorists resolved to bring the Reign of Terror to a close. Robespierre received intimations which alarmed him.

A secret proscription-list was discovered containing the names of some of the most prominent members of the National Convention—Tallien, Bourdon de l'Oise, Legendre, Collot d'Herbois, Billaud-Varennes, Barrère, Vadier, Fréron, Fouché, Voulant, Amar and others. As Robespierre had secretly determined on the destruction of these men they united for his overthrow and resolved to be beforehand with him. Tallien, the leader of the struggle against Robespierre, had been a prominent Jacobin, and had caused great numbers to be executed at Bordeaux after the suppression of the revolt there in 1793. He had been induced to desert the Jacobin cause by the fascinating Fontenay Cabarrus.

On the 9th Thermidor, July 27, 1794, a life-and-death struggle occurred in the National Convention. Robespierre had that day resolved to end the contest by the destruction of those whom he had proscribed. St. Just ascended the tribune, but was interrupted by Tallien and Billaud-Varennes, who began the struggle. Robespierre rushed forward to reply, but he and his ad-

herents were not allowed to speak. His voice was drowned amid the cries of "Down with the tyrant" and the noise of the bell which the president of the Convention, Thuriot, rang incessantly.

Tallien denounced Robespierre as a usurper and a tyrant, as another Cromwell, and threatened to thrust a poniard into his heart. Tallien caused the Convention to pass a decree for the arrest of Henriot, the commander of the National Guard. He also caused the Convention to vote a declaration that its session was permanent. Barrère caused the Convention to place itself under the protection of the armed Sections. Said Tallien: "Now let us return to the tyrant!" He then denounced Robespierre more severely.

Robespierre made repeated efforts to speak, and ascended and descended the tribune; but his voice was always drowned by the cries of "Down with the tyrant" and the ringing of the president's bell. At length, in a moment of silence, he cried out: "President of assassins, will you allow me to speak?" The president's bell again sounded; whereupon Robespierre raved and stormed like a madman, flying from bench to bench, and appealing earnestly to the members of the right, who turned from him with loathing. Finally he sank back into his seat, perfectly exhausted with fatigue and foaming at the mouth. Said a member of the Mountain: "Wretch! the blood of Danton chokes thee."

Robespierre's arrest was then proposed. His brother and Lebas demanded to share his fate. The Convention accordingly ordered that the three chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety—Robespierre, St. Just and Couthon—and their confederate Henriot should be arrested and conveyed by the gens d'armes as prisoners to the Luxembourg Palace.

But this did not end the struggle. As the center of Robespierre's power was in the Jacobin club, he was secure in the support of the lower orders; while Fleuriot, the Mayor of Paris, and the Revolutionary Tribunal were his creatures. The Paris

Commune and the National Guard under Henriot were also devoted to him. The leaders of the Paris Commune proceeded to their assembly; and Henriot, before his arrest, traversed the street, sword in hand, shouting to arms. The Paris Commune and the National Guard accordingly armed in the defense of the arrested chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety.

In the evening the mob marched in a body to the Luxembourg Palace and released Robespierre, St. Just, Couthon and Henriot. Henriot instantly caused the National Guard to surround the Tuileries, where the Convention was in session, and to point their cannon toward the building. Terror reigned within the Convention, but the members of that body were inspired with courage by their imminent danger.

The Convention outlawed Henriot. His cannoniers refused to fire, and fell back with him to the Hôtel de Ville. This retreat decided the issue of the contest. The Convention resumed the offensive, attacked the Commune, and outlawed the rebel leaders. General Barras was appointed commander-in-chief of the armed force of the Convention. The battalions of the Sections swore to defend the Convention, and filed in the chamber before it, animated by Fréron. Said Tallien to the chief of the civic force: "Set forward, lest the day appear before the heads of the conspirators are stricken off."

At midnight the Convention's armed bands marched against the Hôtel de Ville, whither the armed mob of the Paris Commune had borne Robespierre and his arrested companions in triumph, and where he now sat motionless and paralyzed by terror. Detachments of the National Guard, companies of cannoniers, squadrons of gens d'armes, and the armed mob of the Commune, were stationed in front of the Hôtel de Ville for the defense of Robespierre and his associates.

The Convention's troops marched with their cannon in silence, their courage sustained by the grandeur of their mission. Leonard Bourdon, who led the attack as

assistant to General Barras, caused the Convention's decree of outlawry against Robespierre and his confederates to be read to their armed supporters, most of whom then deserted to the forces of the Convention. Bourdon still hesitated to advance; as a rumor had been circulated that the Hôtel de Ville had been undermined, and that Robespierre and his companions and followers in the building would blow it and themselves into the air rather than surrender.

In the meantime the utmost uproar prevailed in the Hôtel de Ville, whose occupants were distracted by irresolution and contradictory resolutions. Robespierre had never wielded a saber. St. Just had dishonored his. The drunken Henriot did not know what to do. The guards of the Commune, who had been accustomed to march to the perpetration of crimes, were stunned when they found themselves attacked. All seemed to expect death, without having sufficient energy to strive to avert it by securing victory.

Payen read to the conspirators the Convention's decree of outlawry, and artfully included the names of all those in the gallery who were applauding their proceedings. This ruse succeeded perfectly, and the noisy supporters of the condemned leaders made haste to put themselves beyond the reach of danger, thus clearing the galleries. Robespierre's partisans now received a melancholy proof of how thoroughly they were deserted.

Henriot descended the stairs in consternation to harangue his cannoniers, upon whose fidelity all then depended. But the Convention's sentence of outlawry had dispersed them all, and the place was thoroughly deserted. In their stead Henriot perceived only the heads of the columns of the National Guard advancing in battle array. He reascended the stairs with terror in his looks and imprecations in his mouth, and announced the total defection of the troops upon whom he and the other condemned terrorists had depended. That band of monsters who had sent thousands to the guillotine instantly gave way to ter-

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THE WOUNDED ROBESPIERRE IN THE HALL OF THE ASSEMBLY.

ror and despair, and every one vented his fury on his neighbor. Nothing but mutual execrations could be heard. Some tried to hide, others to escape.

Infuriated by a transport of rage, Coffin-hall seized Henriot in his arms, and threw him out of the window, exclaiming: "Vile wretch! your cowardice has undone us all!" His fall was so broken by a dung-hill on which he fell that his life was spared for the punishment which he so richly deserved. Lebas seized a pistol and blew out his brains. Robespierre endeavored to do the same, but his hand trembled, and he only succeeded in breaking his lower jaw and disfiguring himself in a shocking manner. St. Just was found with a poniard in his hand, but he lacked the courage to plunge it into his bosom. Couthon crept into a sewer, from which he was dragged by the heels. Robespierre's younger brother threw himself out of the window, but survived his fall.

The Convention's supporters broke into the Hôtel de Ville, traversed its deserted departments, seized Robespierre and his companions, and conveyed them in triumph to the Convention. Robespierre was ordered to be taken to the Place de la Revolution. He was placed for some time with the Committee of General Welfare before he was taken to the Conciergerie. There he was stretched upon a table with a bloody and disfigured countenance, subjected to the view, to the invectives and to the curses of the spectators, while he beheld the different parties rejoicing over his fall, and reproaching him with the crimes which he had committed. He exhibited great insensibility to the excessive pain which he experienced. He was conveyed to the Conciergerie, whence he was brought before the Revolution Tribunal, which condemned him and his associates to death.

About five o'clock in the evening, 10th Thermidor, July 28, 1794, Robespierre ascended the death-cart, and was placed between Henriot and Couthon. Robespierre's head was bound in a bloody cloth. His face was livid, and his eye was almost sightless. A vast multitude gathered around

the death-cart, with the most vehement demonstrations of joy. They congratulated each other and embraced each other. They came closer to the cart to obtain a better view of him, and showered him with imprecations. The gens d'armes pointed him out with their swords. He seemed to look upon the multitude with pity. St. Just beheld the crowd with an unmoved eye. The others were more dejected. Robespierre, St. Just, Couthon, Henriot and eighteen others were guillotined amid the shouts of the populace. Robespierre was the last to ascend the scaffold. His head fell amid the most enthusiastic applause, thus proclaiming that the Reign of Terror was ended, and France breathed freely once more. On the following two days seventy-two other terrorists shared the same fate.

There was still a numerous and powerful party of terrorists in the National Convention, as well as in Paris and throughout France; and two new parties were soon formed—that of the Revolutionary committees which depended for support upon the Jacobin clubs and upon the faubourgs; and that of the Thermidorians, composed of those members of the Mountain who had contributed with Tallien to the victory of the 9th Thermidor in the Convention which sent Robespierre and his partisans to the guillotine, and who relied for support upon the majority of the Convention and the armed Sections.

Although the "Tail of Robespierre," as the remaining terrorists were called, appeared more difficult to tame than Robespierre himself, the reaction had rapidly set in after his execution, and moderation gradually obtained the ascendancy. The Jacobins and Sans-Culottes were gradually deprived of their power. The assemblies of the people were limited by degrees, and the populace were deprived of their weapons.

At the call of Fréron, who was converted from a republican bloodhound into an aristocrat, many of the young men from the middle classes, called from their clothing *jeunesse dorée*, "the gilded youth," attacked the Jacobins in the streets and at their

clubs with loaded bludgeons, carrying on a war of extermination against them, and singing the song of *The Awakening of the People* in opposition to the *Marseillaise*. The cloister of the Jacobin club was at length taken and its doors were closed, after a desperate struggle, during which Paris resembled one vast battle-field.

The National Convention strengthened itself by recalling the seventy-three members who had been expelled for protesting against the imprisonment of the Girondist leaders, released ten thousand of the suspected from the Paris prisons alone, rescinded the decrees for the banishment of the nobles and the priests and for the death of English and Hanoverian prisoners, restored public worship, suppressed the *maximum*, ordered the statue of Marat in the hall of the Convention to be broken in pieces, and sentenced the worst of the remaining terrorists in the Convention—Lebon, Carrier, Fouchier, Tinville and others—to the guillotine.

The reckless action of the Revolutionary government, followed by the hardship of the severe winter of 1794-'95, had produced so dreadful a scarcity that each person in Paris had to be assigned a fixed allowance of bread. As the rich were proscribed, the poor were without employment. The *assignats*—the paper money of the Revolution—had so depreciated that twenty-four thousand francs were paid for a load of fire-wood, and six thousand francs for a single fare in a hackney coach. As the assignats became almost worthless, very many families throughout France were ruined. The farmers avenged themselves for the oppression which they had endured by hoarding up provisions. As famine stalked through the land, the lower classes of France sighed for the system which had given them food as well as political power.

In the provinces, particularly in the South of France, the reaction became even more violent than in Paris; and the Jacobins there became in turn the victims of wholesale massacres, called the "White Terror," to distinguish it from the "Red Terror" which they had themselves established.

Almost every town of Southern France had its band of assassins, generally led by an exiled royalist or Girondist, who avenged his own wrongs by new atrocities.

The National Convention condemned four members of the Committee of Public Safety—Barrere, Vadier, Collot d'Herbois and Billaud-Varennès—to banishment, and sent them to the chateau of Ham, along with seventeen turbulent members of the Mountain who had been concerned in an insurrection for their release.

The Jacobins resolved upon a struggle for their existence, and thus incited the populace of Paris to the insurrection of the 11th and 12th Germinal, March 31 and April 1, 1795. The half-starving mob surrounded the Tuileries, in which the Convention was in session, and made menacing demands for bread, for the release of the accused members, and for a return to the Reign of Terror. The mob was dispersed by General Pichegru, who was then in Paris, and who had come to the aid of the distressed Convention with soldiers and citizens.

In the formidable insurrection of the 1st Prairial, May 20, 1795, a mob of thirty thousand persons, composed of the populace of the faubourgs St. Antoine and St. Marceau, surrounded the National Convention for nineteen hours, from seven o'clock in the morning until two at night, for the purpose of enforcing a return to the Reign of Terror; but the insurrection was suppressed by the courageous action of Boissy d'Anglas, the president of the Convention, with the aid of some battalions of the Sections. Some of the leaders of the tumult and six of the Mountain were condemned to death, and the power of the Jacobins and of the Parisian populace terminated. Many Jacobins destroyed themselves; while others were guillotined, imprisoned or banished.

The fall of Robespierre and the terrorists did not affect the progress of the arms of the French Republic. The campaign of 1794, like that of the preceding year, ended in the triumph of the arms of the French Republic. The French army of the Rhine under General Hoche drove the Austrians

under Clairfait and the Prussians under Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick across the Rhine at Philipsburg in October, 1795. After his great victory at Fleurus, June 26, 1794, Jourdan forced the Austrians back toward the Rhine, defeated them disastrously at Ruremonde, October 5, 1794, and drove them into Germany. After thus driving the Austrians from the Austrian Netherlands, the French marched into Germany and quickly occupied Cologne and Treves. Pichegru's victories had given the French full possession of the Austrian Netherlands, and their armies occupied the west bank of the Meuse and all the towns along the Rhine except Mannheim and Mayence.

On the frontier of the Pyrenees the French armies under Generals Dugommier and Moncey continued victorious after the recapture of Bellegarde by Dugommier in the spring of 1794. After a battle of three days at Monte-Nero, November 27, 1794, in which the two generals were slain, the Spaniards were repulsed by Perignon. The French took Figueres, February 4, 1795, and Roses about two months later. The Spaniards were driven out of France; and the Western French army of the Pyrenees under General Moncey invaded Spain and took Fontarabia, August 1, 1794, and San Sebastian, August 11, 1794, and defeated the Spaniards at Pampeluna, November 8, 1794, thus spreading consternation to the very gates of Madrid.

The campaign of 1795 was opened by the French army under General Pichegru, who, favored by the rigor of winter and the intrigues of the republican, or anti-Orange party in Holland, had crossed the Meuse on the ice late in December, 1794, and defeated the English and Dutch at Nimeguen, January 11, 1795, compelling them to make a disastrous retreat. Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph, January 20, 1795. The English army under the Duke of York retreated into Northern Germany to Bremen, and thence sailed to England.

Pichegru, with his half-clad and half-starved army, took possession of the rich land, compelled the hereditary Stadtholder

to flee to England, and thus revolutionized Holland, which was converted into the *Batavian Republic*, with democratic rights, Trees of Liberty and popular clubs. During the remaining period of the French Revolution, Holland was the ally of France; and French troops were fed and clothed at the expense of the country, while vast sums of money were sent to Paris to defray the expenses of the war. As Holland thus became the ally of France, war followed between England and Holland, and the Dutch colonies in the New World and in the East Indies were conquered by British fleets.

Most of the allied powers were subsidized by Great Britain, whose commercial interest affected by the war was greater than that of any other European power, though her political concern was less. King Frederick William II. of Prussia was absorbed in his designs upon Poland; and a powerful party in Austria, under the leading Minister, preferred a share of the spoils of ill-fated Poland, or the prosecution of the claims of the Emperor Francis II. upon Bavaria, to a war with the French Republic. Accordingly Francis II. withdrew his armies from the Austrian Netherlands, and thus abandoned those provinces to the French.

By capturing Mont Cenis and the passes of the Maritime Alps, the French had secured the keys of Italy. Alarmed by the rapid advance of the French, the Grand Duke of Tuscany deserted the cause of his brother, the Emperor Francis II. of Germany, and retired from the First Coalition against the French Republic by signing a treaty of peace and neutrality with France, at Paris, February 9, 1795.

King Frederick William II. of Prussia, whose finances were exhausted, waited until he had received a subsidy from England to fight France, which subsidy he used against Poland, and then entered into negotiations with the French ambassador at Berlin, Barthelemy. These negotiations were concluded at Basle by Baron Hardenberg on the part of Prussia, April 5, 1795. By the Peace of Basle, Prussia retired from the European Coalition, abandoned the west

bank of the Rhine, with Holland,* to France, and even guaranteed the neutrality of the North of Germany, according to a line of demarcation from Southern Germany, this line being fixed by a special convention, May 17, 1795. The Landgrave of Hesse Cassel afterward also made peace with France at Basle, August 28, 1795. Frederick William II. of Prussia died in 1797, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK WILLIAM III.

The year 1795 was chiefly passed in negotiations. The German Imperial Diet at Ratisbon expressed its desire for peace, and when peace was not negotiated several German princes concluded separate treaties with France though the mediation of Prussia. The death of the youthful Louis XVII. in his loathsome dungeon, June 8, 1795, opened the way for peace between King Charles IV. of Spain and the French Republic; for so long as the young prince lived the honor of his Spanish Bourbon kinsman demanded his release as the first condition of a treaty of peace. Just after the French army under General Moncey in Spain had defeated the Spaniards at Ormea and occupied Bilbao, the Chevalier Yriarte, as plenipotentiary of Spain, signed a treaty of peace with the French Republic at Basle, July 6, 1795. By this Peace of Basle, Spain ceded her portion of the island of San Domingo to France, and recognized both the French and Batavian Republics. The worthless favorite Godoy, who ruled King Charles IV. of Spain and his court, received the title of *Prince of Peace* for his share in this treaty, which diffused unbounded joy throughout Spain.

In the meantime the Vendéans had formed themselves into bands of insurgents in Brittany and Normandy, under the name of *Chouans*. After Larochejacquelin's death Charette and Sapineau made peace with the National Convention at Jausnaie, February 17, 1795. Cormartin, the leader of the Chouans, also concluded peace with the National Convention at Mabilais; but several weeks later the Convention caused him to be arrested and shot with seven other

chiefs, thus giving rise to another insurrection in La Vendée under Charette and Stofflet.

At length the British government resolved to send assistance to the Vendean insurgents; and, after the victory of the British fleet under Lord Bridport over the French fleet off L'Orient, June 18, 1795, three thousand French Emigrants were landed on the island or peninsula of Quiberon, where they proclaimed the Count of Provence sovereign of France with the title of Louis XVIII.; but they were reduced by General Hoche, who promised to spare their lives, but was unable to prevent the five hundred and sixty survivors, who were young men of the best families, from being shot by order of Tallien, June 21, 1795. Charette retaliated by the massacre of more than a thousand republicans who were in his power.

The National Convention now framed the *Constitution of the Year III.*, vesting the legislative power in the *Cinq Cents*, or Council of Five Hundred, which had the power of originating laws, and the *Anciens*, or Council of Ancients, which had the power of approving or rejecting these laws. The members of these two Councils, or legislative bodies, were appointed by delegates elected for that purpose by the French people. The legislative power was vested in a *Directory* of five men, to be named by the Council of Five Hundred, and confirmed by the Council of Ancients. Each of the Directors presided for a period of three months, and during that time affixed the signatures and kept the seals. One Director was elected each year. The Directory had a guard and the Luxembourg Palace for its residence.

The republicans of the National Convention, fearing that the reaction in favor of monarchical principles would deprive them of political power, decreed that two-thirds of the members of the legislative Councils should be chosen from the members of the Convention. The royalists, after vainly objecting to this decree of the Convention, which limited the freedom of election, brought about the *Insurrection of*

the Sections, on the 11th Vendemiaire, 3d of October, 1795.

The National Convention, alarmed at the popular commotion, declared its sittings permanent, summoned around it the camp of Sablous, and made the first attack. But General Menou, the commander of the Convention's troops, suffered himself to be outgeneraled; and his expedition produced the same effect as a victory of the Sections. The Convention then called upon General Barras to provide for its defense. At the request of Barras, Napoleon Bonaparte, the young artillery officer who had distinguished himself under General Dugommier at the siege of Toulon, was appointed second in command.

As the young Corsican was a man of skill and resolution, he was well qualified to command in this dangerous emergency. When he appeared before the Convention's committee he did not display any of the astonishing qualities which were soon to distinguish him. As he was not much of a party man, but simply an army officer, and summoned upon this great scene for the first time, his countenance assumed an expression of timidity and bashfulness, which instantly vanished amid the bustle of preparation and the ardor of battle.

Bonaparte sent Murat hastily for the camp artillery. Murat arrived at the park in the middle of the night with hundreds of cavalrymen, and brought the cannon to Bonaparte, who placed them in the avenues leading to the Tuileries, and loaded them with grapeshot. The army of the Convention, which Bonaparte thus virtually commanded, numbered five thousand men, which he disposed with their cannon to await the attack by the forty thousand armed insurgents of the Sections, under the command of Generals Danican, Duhoux and Lafon, who very soon surrounded the Convention. Upon being admitted to a parley in the Convention, Danican summoned that body to withdraw the troops and disarm the terrorists. The report of several discharges of musketry suddenly ended the deliberations on Danican's demand. Seven hundred muskets

were brought into the Convention, and the members armed themselves as a body of reserve.

The conflict began in the Rue St. Honoré and soon became general. The cannon of Bonaparte's little army discharged their grapeshot, shivering the ranks of the battalions of the Sections, who dispersed after a desperate effort to charge the cannon. After a desperate street fight of less than two hours the armed insurgents of the Sections had lost two thousand killed, and at seven in the evening the Convention's troops assumed the offensive and were victorious at every point, 13th Vendemiaire, October 5, 1795. The next day the Convention's victorious troops disarmed the Section of Lepelletier and reduced all the other Sections to submission.

In the hall of the National Convention, General Barras frankly told the other members that the Convention's victory was due to General Bonaparte's prompt and skillful disposition of the troops, and that the Convention was indebted to that young officer for their own security and for the freedom of their deliberations. The Convention acknowledged Bonaparte's services by felicitations and acclamations, and appointed him General of Division and second in command of the army of the Interior; Barras nominally retaining the chief command, which, however, he soon after resigned when he was appointed a member of the Directory, assigning it to his protégé, whom he familiarly styled "the little Corsican officer," and who was then only twenty-six years of age and had just married Josephine, the widow of General Beauharnais.

Bonaparte's victory over the Sections gave the National Convention leisure to occupy itself with the formation of the two legislative Councils. General Barras was chosen one of the five Directors, on account of his part in securing the victories of the Convention over Robespierre's armed supporters in July, 1794, and over the armed insurgents of the Sections in October, 1795. The other four Directors were Lareveillere-Lepaux, whose probity, moderation and cour-

age had acquired for him universal confidence; Sieyès, the man of greatest reputation in his time; Rewbell, an active man in the administrative department of the state;

litical honesty and ability had saved him when the other members of the Committee of Public Safety fell, was appointed to the vacant place in the Directory. On the 4th



BONAPARTE PUTTING DOWN THE MOB ON THE THIRTIETH VENDEMAIRE.

and Letourneur, a man of some political distinction. But Sieyès declined to be made one of the Directors; and Carnot, whose po-

Brumaire, October 26, 1795, the National Convention passed an act of oblivion as the first measure of the rule of law, altered the

name of the *Place de la Revolution* to that of the *Place de la Concorde*, and then adjourned *sine die*.

Thus ended the National Convention, which had endured three years, from September 22, 1792, to October 26, 1795, in which the violence of the different factions changed the French Revolution into a war against royalism in Europe, and the hall of the Convention into a battle-field. Each party struggled for victory to acquire the supremacy, and sought to effect the establishment of its own system for the purpose of securing such victory. The Girondists, the party of the Commune, the Dantonists and the party of Robespierre successively tried and perished. These different parties gained victories, but were unable to establish their systems.

The natural result of such a condition of affairs was the ruin of every party that sought to restore peace and order to France. Everything was merely provisional—power, men, parties, systems—because war was the only thing possible. The Convention spent the entire year from the time that it had recovered its authority in restoring the reign of law in France—an object finally accomplished by the victories of the 2d Prairial, May 21, 1795, and the 13th Vendemiaire, October 5, 1795.

The Convention had now returned to its starting point by having effected its real design, the protection and consolidation of the French Republic. After thus astonishing the world, it became a thing of the past. As a revolutionary power it began to exercise its functions as soon as law and order had given place to terror and violence, and it ended its career as soon as law and order were restored. The three years of the Convention's dictatorship had been lost to liberty, but not to the Revolution.

The Directory began its administration with an empty treasury, the assignats having so depreciated that this paper currency was not worth the expense of printing it; while a starving mob had to be supported at the expense of the government. Each poor inhabitant of Paris had to subsist on two

ounces of bread and a handful of rice each day, and even this miserable pittance often failed. The French army was destitute of rations. Roads, bridges and canals had fallen into ruin during the Reign of Terror; while bands of robbers and assassins infested the country, plundering and murdering with perfect impunity.

The first care of the Directory was to establish its power by honestly adopting the constitutional course. Very soon confidence, trade and commerce were restored; and the Revolutionary clubs began to be abandoned for the workshops and the fields. That period was remarkable for its great license of manners, which the voluptuous Director Barras was the first to encourage. But the rich were still subjected to violent and rapacious measures.

So great and pressing were the wants of the Republic that the new government resorted to a forced loan of six hundred million francs in specie, and replaced the assignats by another sort of paper money called *rescriptions*, which were soon discredited. It then created territorial *mandats*, which were to be used in retiring the assignats from circulation at the rate of thirty for one, and in performing the office of a currency. These *mandats* had the advantage of being instantly exchangeable for the national domains which they represented, and furnished a momentary resource to the state; but they afterward fell into discredit, and their depreciation led to a bankruptcy amounting to thirty-three thousand million francs.

When the Directory came into power the military affairs of the French Republic had become less prosperous than at any time previously. The campaign of 1795 had been retarded by the retirement of Prussia and by the scarcity which prevailed in France.

The French force under Field Marshal Bender reduced Luxemburg after a siege of eight months; and, as an abundant harvest had again brought plenty, the French army of the Sambre and the Meuse under Jourdan, and that of the Rhine and the Moselle

under Pichegru, crossed the Rhine. Jourdan was beaten by the Austrians under Clairfait at Hochst, October 11, 1795, with the loss of all his artillery, ammunition and baggage; after which he recrossed the Rhine in great disorder, and the siege of Mayence by the French was raised. Pichegru took Heidelberg and Mannheim, September 22, 1795, but he also retreated; whereupon the Austrians under General Wurmser retook Heidelberg, September 24, 1795, and Mannheim also after a severe bombardment of several days, which laid a part of the town in ruins. An armistice was concluded on the last day of 1795.

The failure of the French operations in Germany was owing partly to the treachery of General Pichegru, who, like Dumouriez several years before, entertained the design of restoring the throne of the Bourbons in France; but his indecisive movements only lost him the confidence of the Directory, and he retired from the army in disgust.

In Italy the French were driven from Piedmont and the territories of Genoa, which they had invaded; but the victory which Scherer won over De Vins at Lovano, November 23, 1795, was a forerunner to greater successes which the French gained the next year.

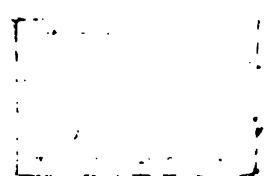
The Directory succeeded in ending the civil war in La Vendée—a result attributable to the firmness and moderation of General Hoche. He defeated Charette and took him prisoner, and Stofflet was betrayed into the hands of the republicans. Stofflet was shot at Angers, the old capital of Anjou, February 25, 1796; and Charette suffered the same fate at Nantes, March 29, 1796. The Count d'Autichamp and the other Vendean generals signed a treaty of peace with General Hoche. George Cadoudal, the leader of the Chouans, and other Vendean chiefs, renewed the war in Brittany, but were also soon conquered by General Hoche, and submitted or fled to England. The Directory announced to the legislative Councils the end of the civil war in La Vendée, July 17, 1796. Thus ended the resistance of the Vendean royalists to the Republic.

As the Directory was detested by the violent republicans as well as by the royalists it had to sustain attacks from both parties. The first effort to overthrow it was made by the republicans under the guidance of Gracchus Babœuf, who, like the Roman Tribune whose name he assumed, desired to establish an equalization of property and a new division of lands. He was joined by some of the old Jacobins, the most prominent of whom was Drouet, May 10, 1796. But the plot was discovered; and, after some legal proceedings, which attracted considerable attention, Babœuf and another conspirator were guillotined, and the others were banished from France. The Conspiracy of the Camp at Grenoble, September 9, 1796, was also suppressed.

General Moreau was assigned to the command of the French army of the Rhine, after the retirement of Pichegru. Jourdan retained the command of that of the Sambre and the Meuse. Carnot, who still directed the military operations of France, formed a plan of campaign by which these two armies were to march upon Vienna, in conjunction with the French army of Italy, the command of which was assigned to General Bonaparte, who, then in his twenty-seventh year, began his wonderful military career.

Young Bonaparte's eagerness to begin operation drew some remonstrances upon him. It was suggested to him that there were many things lacking in his army that were essential to a campaign. He replied: "I have enough if successful, and too many should I be beaten." He lost no time in arriving at Nice; and when he assumed command of his army there, March 27, 1796, he planned one of the most daring invasions. He found his army of thirty-five thousand men in a wretched state of disorder and inefficiency through the neglect of the government. But he soon infused his own energetic spirit into his troops, firing their imaginations with promises of wealth in Italy and applause in France, and marched on Genoa without delay, entering Italy between the Alps and the Apennines.

The Austrian army was at Tortona and





NAPOLÉON AT THE BRIDGE OF LODI.

Alessandria, the Sardinian at Ceva. Bonaparte defeated the Austrians under Beaulieu at Montenotte and Millesimo, in April, 1796, and so completely separated the Austrian and Sardinian armies that they hastened severally to the defense of Milan and Turin. His victory at Mondova decided the fate of Piedmont; and the terrified Sardinian king, Victor Amadeus III., hastily concluded a humiliating peace with the French Republic, to which he ceded the duchy of Savoy and the county of Nice; while he expelled the French Emigrants from his dominions, including even his own daughters, who were married to the two brothers of Louis XVI.; and six of the strongest fortresses of his kingdom were placed in the hands of the French as security until the conclusion of a general peace between all the belligerents.

In May, Bonaparte crossed the Po with his army, and advanced to attack the Austrians. The bridge of Lodi, across the river Adda, was strongly guarded by an Austrian force, which opened a tremendous discharge of grapeshot upon the French troops when they attempted to cross. The advance was checked for a moment, when the French grenadiers rushed forward with irresistible impetuosity, drove back the Austrians, and thus forced a passage over the bridge. This victory, known as the battle of Lodi, occurred on the 10th of May, 1796, and gave the French possession of Milan and the Lombard towns.

The victorious Bonaparte was enthusiastically welcomed by the people of Milan, and he fixed his headquarters at that city, May 15, 1796. He subjected the towns of Lombardy, and so terrified the smaller princes of Italy by the success of his arms and by his insolence that they were only too glad to make peace with him at any price. He extorted large sums of money and war-materials, as well as valuable pictures, statues and other works of art, and manuscripts, from the Dukes of Parma, Modena, Lucca, Tuscany, etc. He followed the example of the Roman generals, with whose lives he was made familiar from Plutarch's

descriptions. He enriched and adorned Paris with these productions of the mind and these works of art in order to gratify the vain and spectacle-loving Parisians. He supported the weak Directory with the supplies of money which he had exacted from the Italian princes.

Bonaparte's rapid successes, and his boldness in venturing to treat independently with the King of Sardinia, so astonished and alarmed the Directory that that body designed to restrain him by dividing the command of the French army in Italy between him and General Kellerman; but Bonaparte declined to accept this divided command, and tendered his resignation to the Directory. His brilliant successes in Italy had rendered him so popular in France that the Directory did not dare to accept his resignation, and ceased interfering with him.

After giving his troops twelve days of rest at Milan, Bonaparte marched against Mantua, the chief Austrian stronghold in Italy, and the key to all further operations against Austria. Bonaparte at once laid siege to that strong fortress, the strongest in all Italy. The strenuous efforts of the Austrian generals to relieve it showed their appreciation of its importance.

As the Austrian army under Beaulieu had been broken up by its defeats at Montenotte, Millesimo and Lodi, Marshal Wurmser was sent with a new Austrian army, numbering seventy thousand men, to the relief of Mantua. Wurmser twice entered Italy from the Tyrol for that purpose; but he was defeated by the youthful Bonaparte at Brescia, Castiglione, Roveredo and Bassano. Wurmser, being unable to keep the field, retired with the remains of his army within the walls of Mantua, as that fortress was well-provisioned and capable of enduring a long siege.

The campaign of 1796 in Germany was conducted by the French armies under Moreau and Jourdan, who were opposed by an Austrian and German imperial army of more than one hundred thousand men under the Archduke Charles, the brother of the Emperor Francis II. and one of the greatest generals of that time.

Moreau crossed the Rhine into Germany between Strasburg and Kehl, while Jourdan effected a passage of the same river at Mayence. Moreau entered Ulm and Augsburg, crossed the Lech, and pushed his vanguard to the last pass of the Tyrol; but Jourdan was defeated by the Archduke Charles at Wurzburg, September 3, 1796, and was consequently obliged to retreat across the Rhine into France. The inhabitants of Spessart and Odenwald, exasperated at the oppressions and exactions of the French, rose against the retreating foe, destroying the French soldiers wherever they strayed from their ranks.

Jourdan's defeat left Moreau, who had advanced as far as Munich, in an extremely perilous situation; as the Archduke Charles made great exertions to cut off his communications with France. Moreau extricated himself from his dangerous situation by a masterly retreat through the valley of the Danube and the Black Forest to the valley of the Rhine; but he was defeated by the Archduke Charles at Emmendingen, driven from Hohenblau, and compelled to recross the Rhine, September 19, 1796.

The Archduke Charles then besieged the fortresses of Kehl and Huningen; but these fortresses were defended by the French until the close of the campaign, and their garrisons only capitulated when all resistance was hopeless, thus leaving the besiegers masters only of heaps of ruins. The German princes mostly followed the example of Prussia in making peace with France, October 24, 1796, instead of encouraging the risings of their subjects against the retreating French.

The retreat of Moreau and Jourdan left Bonaparte's army in Italy to bear the full weight of the Austrian power; and a third Austrian army, consisting of sixty thousand Hungarians, under Marshal Alvinzi, was sent into Italy to relieve Wurmser at Mantua and to drive Bonaparte out of Italy. The great numerical superiority of the Austrians threatened to sweep everything before them in the plains of Lombardy. A severe but indecisive engagement oc-

curred at Vicenza, and Bonaparte's position became exceedingly critical. The young general failed in an attack on the heights of Caldiero, but his bold movements soon changed the aspect of affairs.

On the 15th of November, 1796, Bonaparte marched to attack Alvinzi at the village of Arcola. The narrow causeways leading to the village were closely guarded by the Austrians. The French column that attempted to cross the bridge of Arcola was driven back with terrific slaughter; whereupon Bonaparte, seizing a standard, rushed on the bridge and urged on his grenadiers, but they were repulsed; and Napoleon was in extreme danger of being made a prisoner, when his grenadiers suddenly rushed forward with the cry of "Save the General!" and, with resistless fury, forced a passage over the bridge. Thus began the three days' battle of Arcola, November 15-17, 1796, which ended in the utter defeat of Alvinzi, who was obliged to retreat to Montebello.

The British had already conquered the Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch. Early in 1796 they also took Ceylon, Malacca, Cochin, Trincomalee and the Spice Islands, in the East Indies, from them; and Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo, in Dutch Guiana, in South America, in May, 1796. The English successively captured the islands of Martinique, St. Lucia, Guadaloupe and St. Domingo, in the West Indies, from the French.

By the Treaty of San Ildefonso, August 19, 1796, an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between Spain and the French Republic, based upon the Family Compact of the Bourbons in 1761; and in October of the same year Spain declared war against Great Britain.

England, with Austria as her only ally, and with France, Holland and Spain as her active enemies, now sought peace. Mr. Pitt ordered the British troops to evacuate the island of Corsica, October 21, 1796, whereupon the French took possession of the island. Mr. Pitt also sent Lord Malmesbury to Lille to negotiate a treaty with

France; but this effort failed, October 24, 1796, as the conditions were not agreeable to the three Directors who constituted the majority. Edmund Burke, in his *Letters on a Regicidal Peace*, denounced Pitt's efforts to negotiate with France, and thus fired the military ardor of the English people.

A powerful French fleet under Admiral Morard de Galles, carrying twenty-five thousand troops under General Hoche, sailed on December 15, 1796, for the invasion of Ireland, where a formidable conspiracy against British power existed; but this powerful French expedition was dispersed by tempests, and was obliged to return to France without even effecting a landing in Ireland.

The British fleet under Sir John Jervis defeated a Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, on the coast of Portugal, February 14, 1797. England's credit had now sunk to its lowest ebb; and in February, 1797, the Bank of England suspended specie payments. An alarming mutiny of the Channel fleet, lasting three months, was ended only by the most humiliating concessions. In this dark hour of the struggle Burke passed away, protesting against Pitt's fresh efforts to negotiate a peace with France at Lille. Pitt's efforts for peace were again foiled by the undying hatred between the two nations. But the British naval victories at this period restored the confidence of the English people. The Channel fleet under Admiral Duncan defeated the Dutch fleet under Van Winter off Camperdown, on the coast of Holland, October 11, 1797.

At the beginning of 1797 the Austrians made a fourth attempt to save Mantua. Alvinzi was then largely reinforced; and early in January, 1797, he appeared on the Adige with an army of sixty thousand men. Bonaparte had received only seven thousand recruits to replace all his losses in his last two campaigns; but he marched against the main body of the Austrian army under Alvinzi, and won a great victory at Rivoli, January 14, 1797. The superior military genius of the French commander triumphed over the superior numbers of the Austrians.

Alvinzi retreated into the Tyrol with his shattered army; and Wurmser was obliged to surrender Mantua and his army of twenty thousand men to Bonaparte, February 2, 1797, after a siege of seven months, thus opening the way to an invasion of Austria.

But before invading Austria, Bonaparte, by a sudden and quick movement, overran the States of the Church. He had received orders from the Directory to overthrow the papal government; but he disregarded these instructions by concluding the Peace of Tolentino with Pope Pius VI., who thus ceded to France the states of Bologna, Ferrara and the Romagna, in Italy, and the city of Avignon and the Venaissin, in France, and paid a contribution of fifteen million francs and the choicest works of art in Rome, February 19, 1797.

Thus the youthful Napoleon Bonaparte astonished the world by his brilliant military achievements, and leaped at a bound to the rank of the greatest general of the world. Within less than a year in Italy he had conquered Piedmont and Lombardy; destroyed or captured four Austrian armies; detached the Kings of Sardinia and Naples, and the Dukes of Parma, Modena and Tuscany, from the European Coalition; laid Venice and Genoa under heavy contributions; and annexed Avignon and the Venaissin, Savoy, Nice, Bologna, Ferrara and the Romagna to the dominion of France. The spoils of war supported its expense, enriched officers and troops, and enabled Bonaparte to remit thirty million francs to the Directory.

Early in the spring of 1797 Bonaparte set out for the invasion of Austria, after animating his troops by a spirited address in which he recounted to them the glories of their recent campaigns in Italy. In this address he said to his troops: "You have been victorious in fourteen pitched battles and seventy combats. You have made one hundred thousand prisoners, taken five hundred pieces of field artillery, two thousand of heavy caliber, and four sets of pontoons. The contributions you have levied on the vanquished countries have clothed,

fed and paid the army. You have, besides, added thirty millions of francs to the public treasury; and you have enriched the museum of Paris with three hundred masterpieces of the works of art, the produce of thirty centuries."

Bonaparte led an army of sixty thousand men through the narrow defiles of the Tyrolean Alps into the hereditary Austrian territories. He was opposed by a fifth Austrian army under the Archduke Charles, who awaited him in Friuli, and whom he defeated in a series of sharp engagements, driving him beyond the Save. The Archduke Charles was pursued by Bonaparte as far as Klagenfurth, within a few days' march of Vienna, when the triumphant French general consented to the proposal of the Emperor Francis II. for an armistice.

Francis II. and his court were anxious for the fate of their capital, and dismay and alarm seized upon all classes in Vienna. The fears of the Austrian court and the cries of the Viennese for peace resulted in sending five Austrian envoys to the triumphant Bonaparte, who first granted an armistice of five days, which he afterward extended, as the probability of a treaty of peace became evident. The Preliminary Peace of Leoben was signed by Bonaparte and the Austrian envoys, April 18, 1797. One of the Austrian plenipotentiaries stated that the Emperor Francis II. acknowledged the existence of the French Republic. Bonaparte replied sternly: "Strike out that clause. The French Republic is like the sun in heaven. The misfortune lies with those who are so blind as to be ignorant of the existence of either."

About the time of the conclusion of the Preliminary Peace of Leoben, a popular rising against the French had broken out in the territory of the Republic of Venice, in consequence of a false rumor of a defeat of Bonaparte by the Austrians in the Tyrol; and four hundred sick and wounded French soldiers in the hospital at Verona and many other Frenchmen in the vicinity of that city were massacred.

Bonaparte instantly declared war against

the Venetian Republic, and sent a detachment to occupy its arsenal and forts. The cowardice of the Doge and the aristocratic Council of Ten facilitated Bonaparte's enterprise. Instead of offering a brave resistance to the French and falling with honor, the Council of Ten humbly implored the grace of the youthful conqueror. Bonaparte replied: "French blood has been treacherously shed. The Lion of St. Mark must lick the dust." In the midst of the consternation occasioned by his answer, Bonaparte appeared on the opposite side of the Lagoon; and some of his troops were already in the city when the Doge and the Council of Ten submitted unconditionally.

Bonaparte then exacted the severest conditions. He demanded the overthrow of the aristocratic government in Venice, the arrest and trial of the leading magistrates, the release of all political prisoners, and the disbandment of the Venetian army and navy. The French party prevailed; and the Council of Ten relinquished its authority and acknowledged the sovereignty of the people, whereupon the government was administered by a democratic council.

A riot which broke out in Venice was made a pretext for the introduction of French troops, who marched into the city in May, 1797, seized the Venetian fleet and the stores of the arsenal, plundered the churches, galleries and libraries of their richest ornaments and most valued treasures, and, with the aid of the captured Venetian fleet, conquered the Ionian Isles for France. The French kept possession of the city until the conclusion of the definitive treaty of peace with Austria.

France was at this time distracted by the contests of parties. So great a reaction had taken place among the French people that the advocates of monarchy secured the election of their candidates to the legislative Councils by large majorities, in May, 1797. The Councils immediately denounced the policy of the Directory, and manifested a disposition to overthrow the republican constitution and reestablish monarchy. Emigrants and unsworn priests returned to

France in large numbers, and made no secret of their design to overthrow the Republic. Two of the Directors—Carnot and Barthelemy—sided with the royalist majority in the Councils. The other three Directors—Barras, Rewbell and Lareveillere-Lepaux—became alarmed for the security of their power, and resolved to maintain the Republic. These three Directors proceeded to break up the authority of the Councils, and caused several regiments from General Hoche's army to approach Paris. The Councils, with their royalist majorities, broke out into furious menaces; and the three republican Directors replied by threatening addresses from the armies. Carnot and Barthelemy vainly sought to restore harmony.

A plan was formed by which the Councils might obtain the victory; and Pichegru, as president of the Council of Five Hundred, was to execute it. Promptness and courage were necessary, but Pichegru hesitated. On the other hand, the Directory acted with the boldness which the crisis demanded. The three republican Directors—Barras, Rewbell and Lareveillere-Lepaux—resolved upon a *coup d'état* on the morning of the 18th Fructidor, September 4, 1797. They sought aid from Generals Bonaparte and Hoche, the latter of whom then commanded one of the French armies on the Rhine. Hoche rapidly advanced on Paris with a large military force; while Bonaparte sent General Augereau, one of his most trusted officers, who was selected to command the army of Paris.

On the evening before the appointed day the troops stationed around Paris entered the city under Augereau's command. The *coup d'état* was finished between four and six o'clock in the morning of the 18th Fructidor. General Augereau surrounded the Tuileries with his troops, and ordered the royalist deputies to be arrested. Augereau himself arrested Pichegru, Willot and Ramel in the hall of session; and as the royalist members came hastily to the hall they were either arrested or refused admission. Augereau informed them that the Directory had

decided upon the Odeon as the place of meeting for the Council of Ancients, and upon the School of Medicine for the meeting of the Council of Five Hundred.

The two Directors who sided with the royalists—Carnot and Barthelemy—along with eleven members of the Council of Ancients and forty-two of the Council of Five Hundred, among whom was Pichegru, were arrested and imprisoned. The three republican Directors produced Pichegru's correspondence with the exiled Bourbon princes, and the Councils sustained the action of these three Directors. The prisoners were banished to Cayenne, in French Guiana, in South America. The royalist elections were then annulled, the returned Emigrants were banished, and thirty-five newspapers were suppressed.

Thus the expressed will of the French people was set aside by the military usurpation known as the *Revolution of the Eighteenth Fructidor*. This *coup d'état* ruined the royalist party, revived the republican party, taught the army the secret of its strength, and substituted military rule for the supremacy of law. Merlin de Douai and François de Neufchateau were substituted as Directors in the places of Carnot and Barthelemy.

The Directory intrusted the whole conduct of the negotiations with Austria to General Bonaparte; and the Definitive Peace of Campo Formio, near Udine, in Venetian territory, October 17, 1797, left England as the only power at war with the French Republic. By this famous treaty a great part of Northern Italy—Mantua, Milan, Modena, Ferrara, Bologna and the Romagna, with their dependencies—were erected into the *Cisalpine Republic*, which became a virtual dependency of France. The Austrian Netherlands, the German territory west of the Rhine with Mayence, and the Ionian Isles, were ceded to France; while Austria received Venice, with her provinces of Istria and Dalmatia. The Emperor Francis II. promised to withdraw the German imperial troops from the Rhine fortresses; and, in case the German Imperial Diet refused to

ratify these terms, he agreed to contribute only his contingent as Archduke of Austria. The German princes, prelates and nobles who suffered from this cession of the western Rhineland were to be indemnified on the east side of the river. These and other points were to be settled by a Congress of France and the German powers at Rastadt, in the territory of Baden.

Thus, by the Peace of Campo Formio, the Venetian Republic ceased to exist, after having lasted thirteen hundred and forty-five years, A. D. 452-1797. Genoa and some of the adjacent territories were erected into the *Ligurian Republic*, which was also virtually under the control of France.

After opening the Congress of Rastadt, Bonaparte returned to France, December, 1797. He was received in Paris with a most magnificent ovation, and was by far the most popular man in France. Efforts were made to induce the government to give him some substantial recognition of his great military services, but the jealous Directory refused to make the well-merited reward.

England, the only power now at war with the French Republic, was anxious for peace. The other powers were at that time little disposed to attack Revolutionary France, every administration of which had been victorious, and which, upon every fresh victory, encroached farther on the territories of her neighbors. In 1792 the French Revolution extended only to the Austrian Netherlands. In 1794 it had advanced to Holland and to the Rhine. In 1796 it had overrun Northern Italy and penetrated into part of Germany. It was probable that, if its march were resumed, it would achieve more distant conquests; as it had become more aggressive with each new victory.

The States of the Church were infested with malcontents who were ready to join in a revolution there, and during the winter of 1797-'98 French influence occasioned republican outbreaks at Rome and at other places in the States of the Church. During the suppression of a republican riot at Rome by the papal troops the French General Duphot,

who was present, was killed. The French government, seizing upon this as a pretext, sent a force under General Berthier to Rome, February, 1798. The French were welcomed by the Romans as deliverers. The Pope was deprived of his temporal power; and General Berthier proclaimed the restoration of the *Roman Republic* with Senators, Consuls and Tribunes.

The gray-haired Pope Pius VI. made no resistance, though his personal property was inventoried, even to the rings upon his hands. He would not accept a pension from his captors, and was conveyed like a prisoner to a convent at Siena.

The French imposed severe military levies and imposts upon Rome, and carried the most valuable works of art to Paris; and Rome was subjected to a pillage unsurpassed by those of the Goths, Vandals or Normans centuries before. Priestly robes were burned for the gold in their embroidery, palaces and churches were ransacked, and their treasures of art were carried away or destroyed. The Romans, thus disappointed in the friends who had gained their favor by the high-sounding names of "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity," rose against the French, but were reduced to submission with terrible loss of life. General Berthier was so disgusted by the violation of his own engagements to respect private property that he asked the Directory to recall him; and General Massena, who was appointed his successor, was so notorious a freebooter that the army itself refused to receive him, and mutinied.

Switzerland was also revolutionized by the French in 1798. The Cantons of Berne and Vaud were governed by an aristocratic council, all the members of which belonged to patrician families. The Vaudois, who spoke the French language and entertained French ideas, were infected with revolutionary doctrines. Excited by the French republicans, the Vaudois took up arms to cast off the assumed authority of the Bernese; but the revolted Vaudois were not a match for their antagonists, and they therefore claimed the assistance of the French.

Talleyrand, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, discovered a pretext for intervention in some old treaties of the times of Charles IX. and Henry III., by which France guaranteed the independence of Vaud. Accordingly a French force under General Brune was ordered into Switzerland from Italy. General Brune advanced into Switzerland without serious opposition, and at Lausanne he proclaimed the independence of Vaud. General Brune took possession of Berne, siezed the rich treasures and the arsenal, and extorted vast sums of money from the helpless country by military levies. The Forest Cantons made a heroic and stubborn resistance to the French invaders, and defeated them in several battles with heavy loss; but these Cantons were at length overpowered by superior numbers, and a frightful massacre was the punishment of their efforts.

With the support of the democratic party of Switzerland, headed by Ochs of Basle and Laharpe of Vaud, the French converted Switzerland into the one and indivisible *Helvetic Republic*, which, by a treaty of peace and alliance, was virtually placed under the supremacy of France, which thus secured two military roads, one into Southern Germany, and one over the Simplon into Northern Italy.

In the beginning of 1798 the French Directory threatened an invasion of England, the only country then at war with France. An army of one hundred and fifty thousand men, under the name of the *Army of England*, under the command of Bonaparte, the youthful conqueror of Italy, was assembled along the French side of the English Channel. A French force of a thousand men under General Humbert was sent to Ireland to assist the rebellion of the United Irishmen; but the Irish insurgents had already been overthrown by English troops in the battle of Vinegar Hill; and, after gaining a victory over the English at Castlebar, the French invaders surrendered to Lord Cornwallis, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

The invasion of England was not attempted; but an expedition was fitted out

for the conquest of Egypt, a province of the Ottoman Empire, notwithstanding that a state of peace existed between France and Turkey. The command of this expedition was given to Bonaparte, who intended to strike at the British possessions in India after effecting the conquest of Egypt. Among the generals who served under Bonaparte in this expedition were many who afterward became famous—Berthier, Kleber, Murat, Junot, Desaix, Davoust, Lannes and others. Bonaparte's expedition, consisting of forty thousand land troops and ten thousand seamen, sailed from Toulon for Egypt on the 19th of May, 1798. A number of scientific men and artists accompanied the expedition.

Before the sailing of the expedition Bonaparte had been in secret correspondence with the Knights of St. John, who had then held possession of the island of Malta for almost three centuries. The Knights of St. John had outlived the valiant spirit of their ancestors. Their Grand Master, an unworthy heir and successor of La Valette, agreed to surrender the island to Bonaparte for a specified consideration. After sailing from Toulon, Bonaparte's expedition at once proceeded to Malta, and took possession of the island by a formal convention, June 10, 1798, after a mere pretense of resistance on the part of the Knights of St. John. Bonaparte left a garrison of three thousand of his troops at La Valetta, and then his expedition proceeded on its way to Egypt.

Eluding the British fleet under Admiral Horatio Nelson, Bonaparte's expedition landed before Alexandria, in Egypt, July 1, 1798. That city was carried by storm the next day and given up to plunder.

On the 6th of July, Bonaparte left Alexandria, and with thirty thousand of his troops he advanced toward Cairo, greatly annoyed on the way by the Mameluke horsemen. On the 21st (July, 1798) he arrived before the intrenched camp of thirty thousand Mamelukes under Mourad Bey, near the famous Pyramids. Eight thousand Mameluke horsemen advanced to attack the French troops, when Bonaparte exclaimed :

"Soldiers, from yonder Pyramids forty centuries look down upon you!" Then the conflict commenced. The French, who were formed into squares, easily repulsed the impetuous assaults of the Mamelukes, who rode up to the bayonets of their enemies, and threw their pistols at the heads of the French grenadiers. When the Mameluke cavalry were driven back, the French took by storm the camp of their enemy, with all their baggage and cannon; and the battle of the Pyramids ended in a complete victory for Bonaparte, who had lost less than two hundred men in the engagement. Hundreds of the enemy perished in the Nile. Mourad Bey and a small remnant of his Mamelukes fled into Upper Egypt. Cairo surrendered the next day, and the conquest of Lower Egypt was accomplished.

In the meantime a powerful English fleet under Admiral Nelson had been cruising in the Mediterranean sea in search of the French fleet. On the 1st of August (1798) Nelson discovered the French fleet under Admiral Brueyes anchored in the bay of Aboukir. At about sunset Nelson attacked the French ships. A fierce battle ensued, which continued until dawn the next morning. The thunders of the explosion of the French flag-ship *L'Orient*, of one hundred and twenty guns, which occurred about midnight, shook every vessel in both fleets; and for a moment there was a pause in the deadly conflict. The French admiral had been killed by a cannon-ball. The battle of the Nile, as this engagement is called, was one of the most terrific naval engagements on record; and it resulted in a complete victory for the English. Only a few of the French vessels escaped, the rest all being destroyed or taken by the English. By this disaster Bonaparte and his army were cut off from all resources from France. Said he: "To France the fates have decreed the empire of the land; to England that of the sea."

After taking possession of Cairo, Bonaparte established a new government there with a police and a system of taxation based upon the European model, and ordered the curiosities of that renowned ancient land to

be examined and its monuments and antiquities to be collected and described by the artists and savants who had accompanied his expedition. While the learned men pursued their researches among the palaces and tombs of the Pharaohs, Bonaparte contented his army by introducing into Cairo all the luxuries and amusements of Paris; and his soldiers found their diversion in French newspapers printed in the camp, as well as in cafés, lyceums and gaming-tables.

While constantly establishing himself more firmly in Egypt, Bonaparte sought to conciliate the Turks, Arabs and Mamelukes in that country by professing a belief in the Mohammedan religion. He and his troops treated the religious customs of the Moslems with every possible forbearance, and showed every outward respect to their dervishes, mosques, ceremonies and customs; but religious fanaticism was nevertheless rampant among the Mussulman population of Egypt, thus rendering Christian rule detestable.

The Moslem hatred of the French was increased when Bonaparte levied taxes and imposts; and Sultan Selim III. of Turkey, who was not deceived by Bonaparte's false shows of friendship and devotion, called upon the Mohammedans of Egypt to fight the Christian invaders. A formidable insurrection in Cairo against the French, October 21, 1798, was suppressed with great difficulty by the European tactics, after six thousand Mohammedans had lost their lives.

After the Revolution of the 18th Fructidor the Directory was obliged to struggle against the general discontent in France, as well as against the disordered condition of the finances and the intrigues of the republicans, who were as hostile to the government as the royalists. The extreme republicans would have overthrown the Directory by a counter-revolution had not the Directors by a stretch of power annulled the elections of 1798. But the Directory was fast losing the support of public opinion by its efforts to oppose violence with violence.

The French Republic, by her victories



BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS.

over her enemies, had established six sister republics. These were the Batavian, Helvetic, Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman and Parthenopeian Republics—all established with forms of government similar to that of France. The aggressive conduct of the French in Switzerland, Rome and Naples alarmed the other powers of Europe.

The relations between France and Austria were strained because the house of Bernadotte, the French ambassador at Vienna, had been broken open, and the tricolor torn down and burned, during a popular festival, without the Austrian government having rendered satisfaction. The Emperor Paul of Russia, the successor of Catharine the Great, entertained the most intense hatred against the French Republic; and, as Grand Master of the Knights of St. John, which he had caused himself to be appointed, he saw a cause for war in the French occupation of the island of Malta. Sultan Selim III. of Turkey was not deceived by Bonaparte's assurances of friendly intentions, and was naturally incensed at the unprincipled occupation of his tributary province of Egypt by Bonaparte. The Sultan accordingly sent magnificent presents to Admiral Nelson, and hastened to make an alliance with Russia, hitherto Turkey's bitterest enemy, against France, hitherto Turkey's best ally.

Mr. Pitt feared danger to England's foreign possessions from Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt; and the influence of British gold, along with the general alarm created throughout Europe by the recent French aggressions in Italy, Switzerland and Egypt, induced Austria, Russia, Turkey and Naples to unite with England in a Second Coalition against the French Republic, in the fall of 1798.

King Ferdinand IV. of Naples and Sicily did not wait for the signing of the treaties of alliance between the powers forming the Second Coalition before he began hostilities in the fall of 1798. This hard-hearted and cowardly king devoted himself wholly to hunting and fishing, leaving the affairs of state to his impetuous wife Caroline, a

daughter of the great Empress Maria Theresa and a sister of Queen Marie Antoinette. Queen Caroline herself was entirely under the influence of the notorious courtesan, Lady Hamilton, the wife of the British ambassador at Naples.

Animated by the most inveterate hatred toward the French Revolution and the regicide republicans of France, and informed that the Second Coalition of European powers was in the process of formation, Queen Caroline persuaded her husband to send a Neapolitan army of forty thousand men under the Austrian General Mack against the new Roman Republic. The Neapolitan army marched into the Roman territories in three columns, the central one under General Mack marching directly upon Rome, November, 1798.

The French army in Rome evacuated the city, leaving a garrison in the Castle of St. Angelo; and the King of Naples and Sicily was welcomed with acclamations. But General Mack was defeated with heavy loss in several battles in the course of a few days by the French under General Championnet, who retook Rome and pursued King Ferdinand IV. into his own kingdom of Naples. The Neapolitan king and his court fled from their capital in dismay, embarking with the English fleet under Admiral Nelson for Palermo, in Sicily, ordering their own fleet to be set on fire, and thus abandoning their continental dominions to the triumphant French, December, 1798.

The populace of the city of Naples, excited by the monks and the clergy, now arose against the advancing French troops under General Championnet; while troops of *lazzaroni*, or ragamuffins, joined with peasants and galley-slaves, took possession of Naples, and spread such alarm that King Ferdinand's viceroy also fled into Sicily, while General Mack sought protection among the French.

The French won the *lazzaroni* and peasants over to their side by a miracle. The blood of St. Januarius, which is still preserved in a vial as the most precious pos-

session of the Neapolitans, had failed to liquefy when the king fled from the city; but when a prince who favored the French threatened to kill the archbishop in case of further delay the miracle was duly performed in favor of General Championnet. The Neapolitan people were thus satisfied, and all resistance to the French ceased, January, 1799.

General Championnet then marched over blood and corpses into the stubbornly defended town, abolished the monarchy in Naples, and converted that kingdom into the *Parthenopeian Republic*, which was bound by an alliance with the French interest, January, 1799. All the more respectable and educated Neapolitans who were inspired with any feeling of patriotism were delighted to escape from years of kingly and priestly tyranny, and hailed the new republican government with enthusiasm.

In March, 1799, France declared war against Austria and Tuscany; and the Coalition commenced hostilities against the French simultaneously in Germany, Italy, Switzerland and the Netherlands. The French army under Massena was first in the field in Germany and won several successes; but the French army of the Danube under Jourdan was defeated by the Austrians under the Archduke Charles at Ostrach and Stockach, in March, 1799, and driven across the Rhine into France. The French armies in Italy had been ordered to coöperate with those in Germany by advancing through the Engadine, but their dearly-bought captures of Martinsbrück and Münsterthal were rendered useless by Jourdan's retreat.

The Congress of Rastadt was abruptly terminated by the recall of the German imperial envoy and by the announcement that the Emperor Francis II. annulled all previous proceedings. The French plenipotentiaries at the Congress of Rastadt—Roberjot, Bonnier and Jean Debry—who had rendered themselves universally odious by their pride and insolence, started to return to France; but as soon as they had left Rastadt, on the evening of April 28, 1799, they were attacked by Szekler hussars, in

defiance of all the rights of nations, robbed of their papers, and handled so roughly that Roberjot and Bonnier died immediately, and Jean Debry, who was severely wounded, only saved his life by crawling into a ditch. This barbarous deed and outrage upon the laws of civilized nations, for which the German imperial court was only too clearly responsible, excited universal disgust; and the Directory took advantage of it to excite the French people to vengeance, and thus raised a new army of two hundred thousand men.

In the meantime the French army in Italy under General Gauthier had overrun Tuscany, the Grand Duke of which had retired to Venice. The main French army in Italy under Scherer was repulsed after several days obstinate and constant conflicts at Verona, and was still more severely defeated at Magnano. In less than two weeks Scherer lost half his army, and was succeeded in his command by Moreau.

Field Marshal Suwarrow, the renowned Russian commander, now assumed the command of the allied Austrian and Russian forces in Italy. Suwarrow defeated Moreau at Cassano and entered Milan. Moreau's army was only saved from being overwhelmed by superior numbers by the interference of the Aulic Council of the German Empire at Vienna, with its usual dignified dullness. Suwarrow was ordered to besiege Mantua, Peschiera and other towns which were considered essential to the preservation of what he had already won; and Moreau skillfully effected his retreat to Coni, where he strongly posted himself in communication with Genoa and with France.

Macdonald with another French army now marched from Naples, and was joined by Gauthier's army at Florence; and had these united forces at once joined with Moreau's army the French might have been as strong in Northern Italy as the allies. But as Macdonald wished to make an independent display of his military ability he marched against Suwarrow, by whom he was most disastrously defeated in a three days' battle near the Trebia, the stream

which was so famous for one of Hannibal's great victories.

The result of Macdonald's crushing defeat was the loss of all of Bonaparte's conquests in Northern Italy. The victorious Austrians and Russians occupied Turin, Pignerol, Susa and other strong posts in Piedmont; and Suwarrow's Cossacks even crossed the Alps and invaded France by marching into Dauphiny. The young General Joubert, who had been appointed to supersede Moreau, was defeated and killed in the three days' bloody battle of Novi with the allied army under Suwarrow, August 15-17, 1799. The loss of Tortona to the French by another disaster completed the conquest of the Cisalpine Republic.

The French disasters in Northern Italy were followed by the overthrow of the Roman and Parthenopean Republics. No sooner had the French evacuated Naples than Cardinal Ruffo, at the head of the enraged lazzaroni and bands of Calabrian peasants, took the city by storm, June 13, 1799; whereupon King Ferdinand IV. and his court returned from Sicily and resumed their authority in Naples.

The republicans of Naples now suffered a frightful punishment. With the support of the British fleet under Admiral Nelson, who, seduced by the charms of Lady Hamilton, suffered himself to be made the instrument of an ignominious vengeance, a mob, with the sanction of the restored monarchical government, perpetrated atrocities which eclipsed the horrors of the French Reign of Terror. The assassinations and pillaging of the lazzaroni were followed by the work of the judge, the executioner and the jailor. Every partisan, adherent or supporter of republican institutions suffered persecution. More than four thousand of the most respectable and refined men and women perished on the scaffold or in frightful dungeons. The gray-haired prince, Caraccioli, the former confidant of King Ferdinand IV. and the friend of Admiral Nelson, was hanged at the yard-arm; and his body was loaded with weights and cast into the sea.

In the meantime the French had conveyed the venerable captive Pope Pius VI. from the convent of Siena to the fortress of Briançon, in the high region of the Alps, a region of perpetual frost, to which French soldiers were sent for punishment. But this unwarranted severity was soon discontinued, and the captive Pope died in the milder climate of Valence, August, 1799. A combined force of Russians, Turks and Neapolitans then advanced on Rome, which the French surrendered September 27, 1799; and the new Pope, Pius VII., recovered possession of the Vatican and resumed the temporal power of the Papacy.

In June, 1799, a Russian army under General Korsakoff arrived in Switzerland, and Suwarrow crossed the Alps from Italy to his assistance. Before Suwarrow's arrival, the French under Massena had attacked and routed Korsakoff, while another French army under Soult defeated the Austrians under Hotze. The vanquished Russians fled for refuge to Zurich, where the French under Massena perpetrated a terrible massacre, September 25 and 26, 1799. Among the victims was the Swiss philosopher Lavater, who was shot and mortally wounded by a French officer who had been his guest a short time before.

In the meantime Field Marshal Suwarrow was advancing into Switzerland from Italy by way of the St. Gothard, amid incredible dangers and difficulties, when he found himself surrounded by the French and for the first time heard of Korsakoff's disastrous defeat. After severe conflicts on the St. Gothard and at the Devil's Bridge against the French and the natural difficulties, Suwarrow was defeated in his efforts to cut through Massena's lines, and was compelled to retreat with the remains of his shattered army across the frozen heights of the Grisons, whence he returned with the remnants of the two Russian armies to his own country, where he soon afterward died, May, 1800.

The attempt of the English to drive the French from Holland, and to restore to the Stadtholder his authority, resulted in a

disastrous failure. The incompetent English general, the Duke of York, having been defeated by the French under General Brune at Berghen, concluded with the French a disgraceful convention, at Alkmaar, October 18, 1799, by which he was allowed to retire to England with his army, leaving the Russians alone to oppose the French. The selfish conduct of the English and the Austrians so exasperated the Emperor Paul of Russia that he withdrew from the Coalition, made peace with France, and became the bitter enemy of Great Britain.

Although cut off from his resources by the loss of his fleet, Bonaparte still resolved to pursue his conquests in the East. Upper Egypt was conquered by a French division under General Desaix, who marched beyond the ruins of Thebes. Leaving sixteen thousand men to hold that country in subjugation, Bonaparte, with fourteen thousand men, in February, 1799, proceeded to Syria, where the Turks were assembling a large army to oppose him. On the 6th of March, Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, was taken by Napoleon, after a furious assault; and four thousand of its defenders were put to death after they had surrendered. This cruel act is an inerasable stain upon the character of the youthful conqueror of Italy and Egypt.

On the 16th of March (1799) Bonaparte appeared before Acre, which was garrisoned by a small Turkish force under the Pasha of Syria, who was aided in the defense of the city by an English squadron under Sir Sidney Smith. After a siege of two months, during which seventeen desperate attempts to take the town by storm were defeated, Bonaparte abandoned the siege, and left the town in the possession of its defenders.

In the meantime, while the siege of Acre was in progress, the Turks were assembling immense hosts for the purpose of overwhelming the French. While General Kleber, with a small French force, was on his march to attack the enemy's camp on the Jordan he was met by thirty thousand Turks at Mount Tabor. Kleber, who had

formed his little band into squares, successfully held out against the overwhelming numbers of the enemy for six hours; and when Bonaparte appeared with his troops for the relief of his subordinate the Turks fled in dismay and dispersed, leaving their camp and all their baggage and stores in the hands of the victorious French. Another Turkish force was defeated and dispersed at Nazareth by a French force under Junot.

In the meantime the French had induced Tippoo Saib, Sultan of Mysore, to make his last attempt to expel the British from India; but the warlike Sultan's defeat and death in defense of his capital, Seringapatam, which was then carried by storm by the English, May 4, 1799, only resulted in the annexation of Mysore to British India, thus destroying the hopes of the French for a blow against British power in the far East.

Bonaparte reached Egypt, on his return from Syria, on the 1st of June, 1799. On the 11th of July a Turkish army of eighteen thousand men landed at Aboukir bay, whither it had been conveyed by the English squadron commanded by Sir Sidney Smith. Bonaparte, on hearing of this, left Cairo; and on the 25th of July he attacked and completely destroyed the Turkish army, which had already established a strongly-fortified camp at Aboukir. The greater portion of the Turkish troops were killed, wounded, drowned in the bay of Aboukir, or made prisoners.

Shortly after his brilliant victory at Aboukir, Bonaparte received intelligence, through some newspapers, of the disasters to the French arms in Italy; and he resolved upon immediately setting out on his return to France. Leaving his army in Egypt under the command of Kleber, he secretly embarked for France. After a long voyage, in which he was in constant danger of being captured by British cruisers, Bonaparte arrived at Frejus, on the Southern coast of France, on the 9th of October; and on the 18th he reached Paris, where he met with a most enthusiastic reception.

No sooner had Bonaparte arrived in Paris

than he received proposals from the moderate party headed by the Director Sieyès, and from the extreme republicans led by the Director Barras, for the overthrow of the Directory and the legislative Councils, which had fallen into contempt on account of the French disasters in Germany and Italy, and because of their weakness at home. Bonaparte decided on entering into a scheme with Sieyès and the moderate party, as they would be less likely to interfere with his measures when his personal government should be established. With this design he won all the French generals except Bernadotte to his plans, and also gained the support of the garrison of Paris.

On the 18th Brumaire, November 9, 1799, Regnier, one of the conspirators, induced the Council of Ancients to assign the command of the National Guard and of all the troops in Paris to Bonaparte, and to pass a decree for the transfer of the sittings of the two legislative Councils to St. Cloud, where their deliberations might be more free than in Paris. Bonaparte, as commander of the division of Paris and head of the military power, was charged with the execution of this decree. The Directors Sieyès and Roger-Ducos proceeded from the Luxembourg Palace to the legislative Councils and the military camp at the Tuileries, and tendered their resignations. The other three Directors endeavored to use their authority and to secure the protection of their guard, but the guard refused to obey them. Barras then sent in his resignation as Director, and started for his estate of Grosbois. Thus the Directory was dissolved on the 18th Brumaire, and only the legislative Councils remained.

On the 19th Brumaire, November 10, 1799, the legislative Councils proceeded to St. Cloud, accompanied by a military force. As soon as the Council of Five Hundred had assembled in session one of the conspirators offered a motion which gave rise to a violent tumult, which ended in every member taking the oath of allegiance to the republican constitution. Should the Council of Ancients do the same, Bonaparte

would be deserted and defeated. The crisis had therefore arrived. He accordingly hastened to the Council of Ancients; and when he was summoned to take the oath to the constitution he declared that it no longer existed, that it was the watchword of all factions and had been violated by all, and that, as it was no longer respected, it must be replaced by another compact and other guarantees. The Council of Ancients approved his address.

Bonaparte next proceeded to the Council of Five Hundred to appease that stormy assembly and to obtain its consent to his plans. But his presence, and the sight of the grenadiers whom he left at the door with fixed bayonets, impressed the members with the fear of military violence; and they reproached and threatened him, and all cried: "Outlaw him! Down with the Dictator!" The great military leader who had stood fearless before the fire of foreign foes was disconcerted for the moment by the menaces of a deliberative assembly. He turned pale, became embarrassed, withdrew from the hall, and was led away by the grenadiers who had acted as his escort. The tumult continued to rage in the Council of Five Hundred, of which Lucien Bonaparte, Napoleon's brother, was president. He attempted to defend Napoleon; but the other members loudly demanded the outlawry of the military leader; and Lucien Bonaparte retired from the chair, cast off the insignia of his office, and was escorted from the chamber by a guard sent for that purpose by Napoleon.

Sieyès, who was better able to conduct a revolution than Napoleon, advised a resort to military force. Napoleon and his brother, Lucien Bonaparte, harangued the troops, the one as the conqueror of Italy and Egypt, and the other as president of the Council of Five Hundred. Napoleon asked: "Soldiers, can I depend on you?" The soldiers all responded: "Yes, yes." Napoleon instantly ordered General Joachim Murat to expel the Council of Five Hundred from the chamber. Murat accordingly led a troop of grenadiers into the hall, and ex-

claimed: "In the name of General Bonaparte, the legislative body is dissolved. Let all good citizens retire. Grenadiers, advance!" The shouts of indignation which arose in reply to Murat's pithy proclamation were drowned in the rolling of drums. The grenadiers advanced with fixed bayonets along the whole length of the hall, and the members fled out of the doors and windows with shouts of "Vive la Republique!" That

Republic thereafter existed only in name a few years longer. Thus the Constitution of the Year III. was overthrown by the military usurpation known as the *Revolution of the Eighteenth Brumaire*. Napoleon Bonaparte now took the government of France into his own strong hands; and France, under the name of a Republic, again became an autocracy, under the *Constitution of the Year VIII*.

SECTION XII.—PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION.



HE eighteenth century was a period of remarkable changes—a time when old ideas and institutions were swept away, and when democratic ideas came to the front. These ideas were first promulgated in France, where a number of distinguished philosophical writers arose about the middle of the eighteenth century to question all existing beliefs and things. These writers were Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu and the *Encyclopedists*. These writers attacked Church and State with keen and unanswerable arguments, and gave vent to a widely-felt desire for the "inalienable rights of man." These ideas first found practical expression in the efforts of princes and ministers at reform in Church and State, and afterward in the establishment of the democratic republic of the United States of America, whose people, mostly of the liberty-loving Anglo-Saxon race, by experience were the best prepared for the adoption and practical application of the principles of self-government. The influence of the French philosophers and writers is seen in the American Declaration of Independence, in which are embodied many of the ideas promulgated in Rousseau's *Contrat Social*, "Social Contract," in which the rights of man are advocated with great force. While France in her ideas influenced America, America, as a practical illustration of the sort of government advocated by

Rousseau, in turn influenced France, whose armies and fleets had aided to establish the young American Republic. The result was the French Revolution—that gigantic political maelstrom which swept away in one tremendous torrent the remains of mediæval feudalism and the doctrine of the "divine right of kings." The influence of the French Revolution was felt in every European nation, effecting great political and social changes, and tending to elevate the oppressed masses. The literature of the eighteenth century was the literature of wit, and many old customs and institutions were laughed out of existence. The general elevation of the European masses was also promoted by numerous mechanical inventions and scientific discoveries.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century wonderful progress was made in science; and it was at that time that chemistry began to take rank as a science, in consequence of the multitude of discoveries in that field. The following are the leading scientists and their discoveries.

BOERHAAVE (1668–1738) was a great physician of Holland. HALLER (1708–1777)—a distinguished Swiss physician—was called the "Father of Physiology." WILLIAM and JOHN HUNTER (1718–1783 and 1728–1793)—brothers and natives of Scotland—were distinguished anatomists and surgeons. MESMER (1734–1815)—a physician of Vienna—discovered animal

magnetism, or *mesmerism*, in 1776. EDWARD JENNER (1749-1822)—an English physician—made the first experiment in vaccination in 1796.

BUFFON (1701-1788)—a great French naturalist—wrote *Histoire Naturelle*. LINNÆUS (1707-1778)—the great Swedish botanist—by his simple and systematic classification of botanical discoveries, became the founder of the science of botany. WERNER (1750-1817)—a German—founded the sciences of geology and mineralogy.

JOSEPH PRIESTLEY (1733-1804)—a great English chemist and writer, and a Unitarian divine—discovered oxygen gas and more new substances than any other chemist. His house and library were destroyed by a mob because of his sympathy with the French Revolution; and he spent the last ten years of his life in America, and died at Northumberland, Pennsylvania. LAVOISIER (1743-1794)—a distinguished French chemist—arranged the science of chemistry by systematizing the various discoveries. He was guillotined during the French Revolution.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN (1706-1790)—a great American statesman and natural philosopher—made investigations which prepared the way for the science of electricity. He was born in Boston, and came to Philadelphia in 1726, where he established a newspaper in 1728. His prudence, energy and talents soon made him a leading man in Philadelphia. In 1744 he proposed a plan of association for the defense of Pennsylvania. At the Colonial Congress at Albany in 1754 he proposed a plan for the union of the Anglo-American colonies. In the meantime he had commenced his electrical experiments, making several discoveries, chief of which was the identity of electricity and lightning; and he at once applied it to the erection of iron conductors for the protection of buildings from lightning, thus inventing lightning-rods. In 1757 he was sent to England as agent for Pennsylvania, and in 1765 he was examined before the House of Commons concerning the Stamp Act. In 1775 he returned home,

and was elected a delegate from Pennsylvania in the Second Continental Congress; having been in the meantime deprived of his office of Postmaster-General of the Anglo-American colonies by Lord North's Ministry. He was a member of the Committee to draft the Declaration of Independence, and was a signer of that immortal document. In 1778 he was sent as American commissioner to France, where he signed the treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, between France and the United States, which led to war between France and England. In 1783 he was one of the American commissioners who signed the definitive treaty of peace with Great Britain at Paris; and in 1785 he returned home, and was chosen President of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania. His last public acts were performed in the capacity of a delegate from Pennsylvania in the National Convention which framed the Constitution of the United States, in 1787.

GALVANI (1737-1798) and VOLTA (1745-1827)—two Italian philosophers—discovered what are known as *galvanic* and *voltai* electricity. JOSEPH BLACK (1728-1799)—a Scotch chemist—discovered carbonic acid gas. HENRY CAVENDISH (1731-1810)—an English chemist—discovered the constituent parts of air and water. JOHN DALTON (1766-1844)—an English chemist and physicist—discovered the atomic theory.

EULER (1707-1783)—a celebrated Swiss mathematician—flourished at Berlin and St. Petersburg, and died in the latter city. SIR WILLIAM HERSCHEL (1738-1822)—a German by birth, but who spent most of his life in England, where he flourished as a distinguished astronomer—discovered the planet Uranus in 1781, and resolved the Milky-Way into distinct and separate parts. His sister, Caroline Herschel, and his son, Sir John Herschel, were great astronomers. LAPLACE (1749-1827)—the great French mathematician and astronomer—in his great work, *Mécanique Céleste*, treated of mathematical astronomy. LEGENDRE (1752-1833)—also a great French mathematician—wrote *Elements de Geometrie*.

A number of great inventions contributed to the welfare of the masses, most of which were made in England. Navigable canals began to be made, and machinery was applied to the spinning and weaving of cotton. JAMES BRINDLEY (1716-1772)—an Englishman—was the founder of canal navigation. JAMES HARGREAVES (1730-1778)—an Englishman—invented the carding-machine and the spinning-jenny in 1765. SIR RICHARD ARKWRIGHT (1732-1792)—an Englishman—invented the cotton spinning-frame in 1768. CROMPTON (1753-1827)—an Englishman—invented the mule-jenny for the

There were many minor inventions. The piano-forte was invented at Dresden in 1717. Caoutchouc, or India-rubber, was brought to Europe from South America in 1730. Stereotyping was first practised by WILLIAM GED of Edinburgh. The Chronometer, or clock to keep perfect solar or sidereal time, to determine the longitude of ships at sea, was constructed by JOHN HARRISON, an Englishman, in 1742. The Hydraulic Press was invented by BRAMAH, an Englishman, in 1786. Gas-lights were first used by MURDOCH in Cornwall in 1792. Lithography was invented in Germany in 1796.



WATT DISCOVERING THE POWER OF STEAM.

spinning of yarn, in 1775. JACQUARD (1752-1834)—a native of France—invented the loom for figured weaving. JOSIAH WEDGWOOD (1731-1795)—an Englishman—invented "Queen's ware," and thus improved the porcelain manufacture. JAMES WATT (1736-1819)—a Scotchman—improved the steam-engine, for which he obtained a patent in 1769, and which he applied to machinery. ELI WHITNEY (1765-1825)—a native of Massachusetts—invented the cotton-gin in 1793.

An improved system of Stenography, or short-hand writing, was introduced. FAHRENHEIT (1690-1736), a Hollander, invented the thermometer bearing his name. JOHN SMEATON (1724-1792)—an English civil engineer—constructed the *Eddystone Light-house*.

EMANUEL SWEDENBORG (1688-1772)—a great Swedish scientist, philosopher, and writer on apocalyptic subjects—believed himself to have received divine revelations, and founded the *New Christian Church*.

JONATHAN EDWARDS (1703-1758)—a great American divine and metaphysician—wrote *An Inquiry into the Freedom of the Will*. ADAM SMITH (1723-1790)—a Scotchman and professor in Glasgow University—by his great work, *The Wealth of Nations*, founded the science of political economy. THOMAS REID (1710-1796)—a great Scotch metaphysician and philosopher—wrote *An Inquiry into the Human Mind*. IMMANUEL KANT (1724-1804)—a great German philosopher and metaphysician, partly of Scotch descent, who lived all his life at Königsberg—by his *Critique of Pure Reason* laid the foundation of all subsequent German metaphysics.

The Age of Queen Anne—known as the *Augustan Age of English Literature*—was adorned with the names of Pope, Addison, Steele, Swift, Defoe, Bolingbroke and others.

ALEXANDER POPE (1688-1744)—the greatest English poet during the first half of the eighteenth century—wrote poetry at twelve; and his chief works are his *Essay on Man*, *Rape of the Lock*, and a *Translation of Homer*. JOSEPH ADDISON (1672-1719)—a noted political writer—was the author of the *Spectator* and the *Tatler*, and also wrote *Cato*, *A Letter from Italy*, etc. SIR RICHARD STEELE (1671-1729) aided Addison in writing the *Tatler* and the *Spectator*. JONATHAN SWIFT (1667-1745)—a great Irish-English political writer and satirist—wrote *Gulliver's Travels*, and died insane. DANIEL DEFOE (1661-1731)—an eminent novelist and political writer—was the author of *Robinson Crusoe*. LORD BOLINGBROKE (1678-1751)—the great Tory statesman during Queen Anne's reign—was an eminent political and infidel writer.

Other poets were the Scotch poet, JAMES THOMSON (1700-1748), author of *The Seasons*; the English poet, EDWARD YOUNG (1684-1765), author of *Night Thoughts*; and the fine English lyric poet, WILLIAM COLLINS (1720-1756), who died insane. Among English divines was ISAAC WATTS (1674-1748), the great hymnist.

The age of Dr. Samuel Johnson—com-

prising the latter half of the eighteenth century—produced the following great English novelists, dramatists, historians and poets:

SAMUEL JOHNSON (1709-1784)—a great English writer—was the author of *The Lives of the Poets*, *Rasselas*, *The Rambler*, and an *English Dictionary*. EDMUND BURKE (1730-1797)—a famous Irish-English orator and statesman—wrote *An Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful*, and *Reflections on the French Revolution*.

DAVID GARRICK (1716-1779) was a celebrated English dramatist and actor. RICHARD BRINSLEY SHERIDAN (1751-1816) was a great Irish-English statesman, Parliamentary orator, lawyer and dramatist.

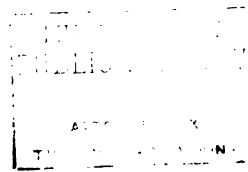
SAMUEL RICHARDSON (1689-1761)—a celebrated English novelist—wrote *Pamela*, *Clarissa Harlowe* and *Sir Charles Grandison*. HENRY FIELDING (1707-1754)—a great English novelist—wrote *Tom Jones*, *Jonathan Wilde* and *Joseph Andrews*. TOBIAS GEORGE SMOLLETT (1721-1771)—also a noted English novelist—wrote *Roderick Random*, *Peregrine Pickle* and *Humphrey Clinker*. LAURENCE STERNE (1713-1768)—likewise a great English novelist and humorist—wrote *Tristram Shandy* and *The Sentimental Journey*. MISS HANNAH MORE (1745-1833) wrote dramas and novels, one of the best-known of her works being *The Shepherd of Salisbury Plain*.

EDWARD GIBBON (1737-1794)—one of the greatest English historians—wrote *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. DAVID HUME (1711-1776)—a great Scotch philosopher and historian—wrote a *History of England*, a *Treatise on Human Nature*, and *Essays*. WILLIAM ROBERTSON (1721-1793)—a famous Scotch historian—wrote a *History of Scotland*, *History of America*, and *History of Charles V. of Germany*.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH (1728-1774) was a brilliant Irish-English poet, historian and novelist; whose chief poems were *The Traveler* and *The Deserted Village*, whose great novel was *The Vicar of Wakefield*, and whose other works were *History of England*, *History of Greece*, *History of Rome*, *History of Animated Nature*, etc.



DISTINGUISHED ENGLISH AUTHORS.



THOMAS GRAY (1716-1771) was the greatest lyric poet of England, and his most celebrated poem was his *Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard*. WILLIAM COWPER (1731-1800)—a famous English poet—wrote *The Task*, *John Gilpin* and other poems, and died insane. ROBERT BURNS (1759-1796)—Scotland's celebrated lyric poet, "the Ayrshire plowman"—wrote *Highland Mary*, *Bonny Doon*, *Auld Lang Syne*, *Tam O'Shanter*, and many other songs and poems.

Other poets of this period were THOMAS CHATTERTON (1752-1770), the boy poet, who committed suicide at the age of seventeen; MARK AKENSIDE (1721-1770), author of *Pleasures of the Imagination*; and JAMES BEATTIE (1736-1803), a noted Scotch poet. Other noted writers were SIR WILLIAM BLACKSTONE (1723-1780), whose great work on the *Laws of England* is the standard text-book of the legal profession in England and America; SIR WILLIAM JONES (1746-1794), the great philologist and orientalist; HORACE WALPOLE (1717-1797), son of the great statesman, Sir Robert Walpole, and author of *Castle of Otranto* and other works; and THOMAS PAINE (1736-1809), the great political and infidel writer, who by his pen aided the cause of liberty in the American and French Revolutions, and who lived in America during the American Revolution and was a member of the French National Convention during the French Revolution, and died in New York. Paine's works were *The Crisis*, *Common Sense*, *Rights of Man*, and *Age of Reason*.

ROLLIN (1661-1741)—a famous French historian—wrote an *Ancient History*. LE SAGE (1668-1747)—a great French novelist—wrote *Gil Blas*.

MONTESQUIEU (1689-1755)—a great French writer, whose chief works were *Considerations sur les causes de la grandeur et de la décadence des Romains*; *De l'Esprit des Loix*, "On the Spirit of Laws;" and *Lettres Persanes*, "Persian Letters"—was a skeptic in religion. VOLTAIRE (1694-1778)—a great French satirist and infidel writer—wrote the *Henriade*, the only French epic

poem, and several historical works, such as the *Age of Louis XIV.* and *History of Charles XII.* ROUSSEAU (1712-1778)—a noted French writer and son of a Geneva watch-maker—was a skeptic in religion and a writer of many operas and plays, and was obliged to leave France for publishing his *Contrat Social*, "Social Contract," in which he advocated the equal rights of all men.

D'ALEMBERT (1717-1783) was a great scientist and principal contributor to the *Encyclopædia*. DIDEROT (1713-1784) was a poet, philosopher and Encyclopedist. CONDORCET (1743-1794) was a metaphysician and Encyclopedist. CONDILLAC (1715-1780) was a metaphysician and writer for the *Encyclopædia*. HELVETIUS (1715-1771) was a philosopher and writer for the *Encyclopædia*.

ROUGET DE L' ISLE (1760-1836)—French poet—wrote the *Marseillaise*. VOLNEY (1757-1820) was a famous French infidel writer. MADAME ROLAND (1754-1793) was an enthusiast for liberty and author of *Memoires*. MADAME DE STAEL (1766-1817)—daughter of Necker—wrote *Corinne*. MADAME DE GENLIS (1746-1830) was a novelist and writer of juvenile works.

MOSHEIM (1694-1755) was a great German church historian. WINCKELMANN (1717-1768) was a great German archæologist.

KLOPSTOCK (1724-1803)—a celebrated German poet—wrote tragedies and lyrics, and his chief work is the *Messiah*. LESSING (1729-1781)—a distinguished German critic and dramatic poet—wrote *Laocöon*, *Emilia Galotti*, *Nathan the Wise*, *Minna von Barnhelm*, and other works. GOETHE (1749-1832)—the greatest of German poets—wrote *Werther*, *Wilhelm Meister*, and *Faust*. SCHILLER (1759-1805)—one of the most illustrious of German poets—wrote dramas, such as *William Tell* and *Wallenstein*, and also a *History of the Thirty Years' War*. HERDER (1744-1803) was a renowned German poet, critic and philosopher. WIELAND (1733-1813) was a famous German poet and novelist.

LAVATER (1741-1801) was a great Swiss philosopher and writer on physiognomy. LOMONOSOFF (1711-1765) was a Russian

poet and grammarian. **METASTASIO** (1698–1782) was an Italian poet and musical composer, author of operas, oratorios and sonnets. **ALFIERI** (1749–1803) was the greatest of modern Italian poets.

JOHN SEBASTIAN BACH (1685–1750) was a great German musical composer—the greatest that ever lived. **HANDEL** (1684–1759)—an illustrious German musical composer—lived most of his life in England; and his leading oratorios were *Israel in Egypt*, *the Messiah*, and *Judas Maccabæus*. **HAYDN** (1732–1809)—a great German musical composer—wrote many oratorios, chief of which was *The Creation*. **MOZART** (1756–1792)—also a distinguished German musical composer—wrote *Don Giovanni* and the *Requiem*.

WILLIAM HOGARTH (1697–1764) was a renowned English painter and engraver. **SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS** (1723–1792)—the first President of the Royal Academy—was a great English portrait and landscape painter. **THOMAS GAINSBOROUGH** (1727–1788) was a great English landscape painter. **JOHN SINGLETON COPLEY** (1737–1815) was born in Boston, Massachusetts, but flourished in England as a great historical painter. **BENJAMIN WEST** (1738–1820)—born in Chester county, Pennsylvania, but who lived most of his life in England—was a great historical painter and also President of the Royal Academy. **ANTONIO CANOVA** (1757–1822)—a great Italian sculptor—was celebrated for his many beautiful statues.

During the latter part of the eighteenth century several great philanthropists of England distinguished themselves for their unselfish devotion to the cause of humanity. **JOHN HOWARD** (1726–1790) was famous for his labors in the cause of prison reform. **SIR SAMUEL ROMILLY** (1757–1818) labored to improve the English penal laws.

WILLIAM WILBERFORCE (1759–1833), as a member of Parliament, devoted his life to the cause of the abolition of the slave-trade in the British colonies, which was effected in 1807, and to the abolition of slavery in the colonies, which was accomplished just

before his death in 1833. **THOMAS CLARKSON** (1760–1846) was a worthy co-laborer with Wilberforce in the cause of abolition, out of Parliament.

JOHN and **CHARLES WESLEY** (1703–1791 and 1708–1788)—brothers and English clergymen of the Established Church—were distinguished as the founders of *Methodism*, the greatest religious movement since the Reformation. John Wesley was a preacher and writer, who maintained the doctrine that man can by his own free will obtain salvation—a doctrine directly opposed to the creeds of St. Augustine and John Calvin. Charles Wesley was a great preacher and hymnist.

GEORGE WHITEFIELD (1714–1770)—one of the greatest of English pulpit orators and Methodist divines—adhered to the Augustinian and Calvinistic creed of predestination. Methodism—which arose in England about the middle of the eighteenth century—made rapid progress in England and among the English colonists in America, and is now the leading denomination in the United States of America.

Methodism was the last outgrowth of the Puritan movement of the preceding century; and the Wesleys and Whitefield aimed at a reform of the Episcopal State Church of England and of English society in general by freeing both from the corruption then so prevalent, and at substituting for these national evils a purer and more earnest Christian spirit. The Wesleys did not desire a separation from the Established Church, but they were gradually forced to a total separation by the logic of circumstances.

Said Montesquieu on his visit to England: "Every one laughs if one talks of religion." Most of the prominent English statesmen of the time were unbelievers in any form of Christianity, and were distinguished for the immorality and grossness of their lives. Drunkenness and foul talk were considered no discredit to Sir Robert Walpole. A later Prime Minister, the Duke of Grafton, was in the habit of appearing with his mistress at the theater.

Purity and fidelity to the marriage-vow were now sneered out of fashion; and the celebrated Lord Chesterfield, in his letters to his son, instructed him in the art of seduction as part of a polite education. Profanity was general among all classes and among both sexes. Judges swore on the bench. The introduction of gin gave a new impetus to drunkenness, and in the streets of London the gin-shops invited every passer-by to come in and get drunk for a penny and dead drunk for twopence.

The lower classes were ignorant and brutal. The only schools were the grammar schools founded by Edward VI. and Elizabeth. The rural peasantry, fast reduced to pauperism by the abuse of the poor laws, had no moral or religious training. Said Hannah More: "We only saw but one Bible in the parish of Cheddar, and that was used to prop a flower-pot." There was no effective police in the English towns; and in great riots the mobs of London or Birmingham burned houses, broke open prisons, and plundered with perfect impunity. The criminal classes increased in number and boldness, in spite of the laws which made it a capital crime to cut down a cherry-tree, and which hung twenty young thieves in a morning in front of Newgate.

Archdeacon Paley exhorted the young clergy of the diocese of Carlisle "not to get drunk or to frequent ale-houses, * * to avoid profligate habits, not to be seen at drunken feasts or barbarous diversions;"

* * and in reading the service, "not to perform it with reluctance or quit it with symptoms of delight." Dr. Knox, headmaster of Tunbridge School, said: "The public have remarked with indignation that some of the most distinguished coxcombs, drunkards, debauchees and gamblers who figure at watering-places are young men of the sacerdotal order." Arthur Young wrote that "the French clergy are more decent than the English. They are not poachers or fox-hunters who spend the morning with the hounds, the evening at the bottle, and reel from drunkenness into the pulpit."

But while the higher and lower classes

were steeped in vice and crime, the great middle classes lived on in their old piety unchanged; and it was from that class that the Wesleyan revival burst forth near the end of Walpole's administration—a revival which in a few years was to change the whole temper of English society, which restored the Church to life and activity. Religion carried a fresh spirit of moral zeal to the hearts of the poor, and purified English literature and English manners. It gave rise to a new philanthropy which reformed English prisons and infused clemency and wisdom into the English penal laws, abolished the slave trade, and gave the first impulse to popular education.

John Wesley was born at Epworth, in Leicestershire, June 17, 1703, and was the son of a clergyman of the Established Church. He was educated at Oxford University, and at the age of twenty-three he was ordained a clergyman of the Established Church and elected a Fellow of Lincoln College. His fellowship gave him a small salary, which supported him during a great part of his life. He passed much time in study and prayer, and had few companions.

While John Wesley was for a time acting as his father's curate at Epworth, his brother Charles and several other students formed a religious society to meet together for prayer and moral improvement, thus exciting the ridicule of their fellow-students, who called the new society "Bible Bigots," "Bible Moths," "the Holy Club," "the God Club," and finally "Methodists;" the last of which names adhered to the Wesleys and their religious society. John Wesley joined this club when he returned to Oxford, and Whitefield also became a member of it.

After his father's death, in 1735, John Wesley, on General Oglethorpe's invitation, went on a mission to preach to the Indians of Georgia; but at the close of 1737 he returned to England, just as Whitefield was sailing for America. While in Georgia, Wesley had learned something of the Moravians; and after his return he united with the Moravians of London in forming a religious society, which met in little bands.

When the Methodist group transferred itself from Oxford to London, in 1738, three figures detached themselves from the group which now attracted public attention by the fervor and extravagance of its piety. These three figures were the brothers John and Charles Wesley and George Whitefield. Each of these three men found his special work in carrying religion to the vast masses of population in the towns or around the mines and collieries of Cornwall and the North of England.

Whitefield, a servitor of Pembroke College, was the great preacher of the revival. As the pulpits of the Established Church were closed against the new apostles they were obliged to preach in the fields. Their voices were soon heard in every part of England—among the bleak moors of Northumberland, in the dens of London, in the long galleries where the Cornish miner hears the roar of the billowy deep. Whitefield's preaching was such as had never before been heard in England, silencing all criticism in its intense reality, its earnestness of belief, its deep, tremulous sympathy with the sin and sorrow of mankind.

As a preacher John Wesley was next in power to Whitefield. As a hymn-writer he ranked second to his brother Charles, who came from Christ Church College as the "sweet singer" of the new religious movement. John Wesley also had other admirable qualities—an indefatigable industry, a cool judgment, a command over others, a faculty of organization, a singular combination of patience and moderation with an imperious ambition, which marked him as a ruler of men. He had likewise a learning and a skill in writing possessed by no others of the Methodists. He was older than any of his colleagues, and he outlived them all. His life—from 1703 to 1791—embraces almost the whole of the eighteenth century; and the religious organization which he founded passed through almost every phase of its history before he died at the age of eighty-eight.

John Wesley practiced a monkish asceticism, frequently living only on bread and

sleeping on the bare boards. He lived in a world of wonders and divine interpositions. He considered it a miracle if the rain ceased and allowed him to proceed on a journey. He regarded it as a punishment from Heaven if a hailstorm burst upon a town which had been deaf to his preaching. He said that one day when his horse became lame: "I thought, can not God heal either man or beast by any means or without any? Immediately my headache ceased and my horse's lameness in the same instant." He guided his conduct by drawing lots or by watching at what particular texts he opened his Bible.

But, with all his superstition, John Wesley was practical, orderly and conservative; and no man ever headed a new movement who was more anti-revolutionary. In his earlier days the bishops had been obliged to rebuke him for the intolerance and narrowness of his Churchmanship. When Whitefield began his sermons Wesley could not at first approve of "that strange way." He condemned and fought against the admission of laymen as preachers till he found himself left with only laymen to preach. He clung with a passionate fondness to the Church of England to the last, and simply regarded the body which he had founded as only a lay society in communion with that Church. He broke with the Moravians, the earliest friends of his movement, when they imperiled its safe conduct by their contempt of religious forms. He broke with Whitefield when that great preacher plunged into an extravagant Calvinism.

But this same practical temper of mind finally enabled John Wesley to grasp and organize the new movement. He himself became the most diligent of field preachers, and his journal of half a century is mainly a record of fresh journeys and fresh sermons. When he was finally obliged to employ lay preachers he made their work a new and attractive feature of his system. His earlier asceticism only lingered in his dread of social enjoyment and an aversion to the gayer and livelier side of life which marks the resemblance of the Methodist movement

to the Puritan movement of the preceding century. As his superstitious fervor gradually gave way in his later years he discouraged the enthusiastic outbursts of his followers, so characteristic at the opening of the new movement.

Says Green: "It was no common enthusiast who could wring gold from the close-fisted Franklin and admiration from the fastidious Horace Walpole, or who could look down from the top of a green knoll at Kingswood on twenty thousand colliers, grimy from the Bristol coal-pits, and see, as he preached, the tears 'making white channels down their blackened cheeks.'"

The effects of Whitefield's preaching, and that of his fellow-Methodists, were terrible for good and ill. They aroused a passionate enthusiasm in their followers. Women fell down in convulsions. Strong men were stricken suddenly to the ground. The preacher was interrupted by hysteric outbursts of laughter or weeping. All the manifestation of strong spiritual excitement followed in their sermons; and the terrible sense of a conviction of sin, a new dread of hell, a new hope of heaven, assumed forms both grotesque and sublime. Charles Wesley's sweet hymns expressed the fiery conviction of the converts in chaste and beautiful verse; and the wild throes of hysteric enthusiasm gave way to a fondness for hymn-singing, so that a new musical impulse was aroused in the people of England which gradually changed the character of public devotion.

The preaching of Whitefield and his colleagues also aroused a fierce hatred in their opponents, and these preachers' lives were frequently imperiled. They were mobbed, ducked, stoned, and even smothered with filth. The magistrates frequently allowed the mobs to do as they pleased, and in one place the prosecuting attorney of the county headed the mob. All sorts of ridiculous stories were told about John Wesley. He was said to have been imprisoned for selling gin; to be a Quaker, a Catholic, an Anabaptist; to be going to join the Spaniards, and to have hanged himself.

Wesley's powers were directed to building up a great religious society which might give practical and permanent form to the new enthusiasm. The Methodists were grouped in classes, assembled in love-feasts, purified by the expulsion of unworthy members, and supplied with a change of settled clergymen and itinerent preachers; while the entire body was placed under the absolute government of a conference of preachers. But as long as John Wesley lived, the direction of the new religious society remained with him alone. To those who objected to his Church government, he replied: "If by arbitrary power you mean a power which I exercise simply without any colleagues therein, this is certainly true, but I see no hurt in it." John Wesley strongly condemned the conduct of the Anglo-American colonists in severing themselves from their mother country, and regarded them as rebellious and undutiful children.

The Methodist body—numbering one hundred thousand at the time of Wesley's death, and now amounting to millions in England and America—bears the impress of John Wesley in more than in its name. Of all Protestant Churches it is the most rigid in its organization and the most despotic in its government.

The Methodist Church itself was only a small outcome of the Methodist religious revival. Its action broke the lethargy of the clergy of the Established Church, and made the fox-hunting parson and the absentee rector impossible. In this age no body of clergy surpasses that of the Established Church in piety, in philanthropic energy, or in popular regard. A new moral enthusiasm took hold of the English nation, thus improving the morals of the upper classes and purifying English literature from the foulness which had infected it since the Stuart Restoration in 1660.

But the noblest results of the Wesleyan movement were its philanthropic effects, which are still felt. The Sunday-schools, established by Robert Raikes of Gloucester in 1781, were the beginnings of popular education. Attempts were made to amelior-

ate the condition of the poor, to alleviate physical suffering, to improve the degraded and the profligate. Hannah More, by her writings and her personal example, drew the sympathy of England to the poverty and crime of the agricultural laborer. The passionate impulse of human sympathy with the wronged and the afflicted led to the erection of hospitals, the endowment of charities, the building of churches, the sending of missionaries to heathen lands. This sentiment supported Burke in his plea for the Hindoo, and sustained Wilberforce and Clarkson in their crusade against the iniquitous slave-trade. It also upheld Sir Samuel Romilly in his efforts to improve the English penal laws, and the noble-hearted John Howard in the cause of prison reform.

Other Protestant sects arose during the eighteenth century; such as the Swedenborgians, or *New Christian Church*, founded by the great Emanuel Swedenborg; the *Dunkards* and *Amish* in Germany, who in many points of faith, such as simplicity of dress and manners, aversion to military service and the use of law, coincide with the Mennonites and Quakers, and many of whom have settled in the United States of America; the *Unitarians*, who deny the divinity of Christ; and the *Universalists*, who reject the doctrine of a future punishment, and who arose in England and America. In France the writings of Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu and the Encyclopedists made skepticism in religion almost universal among the intelligent classes. In Germany at the same time the writings of Kant, Nicolai and others also undermined religious faith, and gave rise to the *Rationalists*, who denied all divine revelation and supernaturalism.

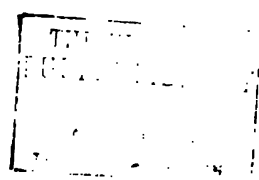
During the last half of the eighteenth century the social condition of the masses exhibited a marked improvement. The new inventions brought within the reach of the poorer classes many more of the comforts and conveniences of life. Public libraries, mechanics' institutes, clubs, coöperative societies and Sunday-schools were now in-

troduced. About the close of the eighteenth century gentlemen cast aside their hanging cuffs and lace ruffles, their cocked hats and wigs, their buckles and swords.

During the eighteenth century British navigators were making explorations and discoveries in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. Commodore Anson circumnavigated the globe between 1740 and 1742. Numerous discoveries were made by British navigators, such as Byron, Wallis, Cook, Vancouver and others. Captain Cook discovered a number of small islands in the Pacific, the most important being the Sandwich, or Hawaiian Islands, in 1778, where he was killed in a dispute with the natives in 1779. The Sandwich Islanders have since been largely converted to Christianity by Christian missionaries, and many Americans have settled in those islands, while the native population has been diminishing. Behring's Strait was discovered in 1741 by Captain Behring, a Dane in the Russian naval service.

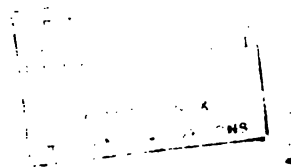
In the Mohammedan world, about 1760, Abd el Wahab, of Kurdistan, founded the sect of the *Wahabees*, or *Wahabites*, who disclaimed the divine nature of Mohammed, rejected the mediation of saints, and denied the obligation of vows in time of danger. His disciples were highly intolerant, and were continually involved in feuds and wars with the neighboring tribes in the East of Asiatic Turkey and Arabia, but were suppressed in Arabia in 1818 by Mehemet Ali, the powerful Pasha of Egypt.

The English conquest of India and the extension of the British dominion in other parts of the world brought about more frequent communication and a more enlarged intercourse between all parts of the globe, and thus led to a diffusion of European civilization, especially of Anglo-Saxon civilization—the highest type of civilization yet attained by man. Thus, when England had established free institutions on a solid basis in her own home, she was preparing the way for the extension of the same boon to other peoples in remote parts of the earth, and thus elevating and improving the races which she had conquered.










CHAPTER V.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

SECTION I.—CONSULATE AND EMPIRE OF NAPOLEON.

E HAVE seen that, by the overthrow of the Directory, on the 18th Brumaire, Napoleon Bonaparte took the government of France into his own hands. On the 13th of December, 1799, the *Constitution of the Year VIII.* was proclaimed for France, by which the executive power was vested in three Consuls, who were to be elected for ten years. The *First Consul*, as Napoleon was called, possessed all the powers of a monarch. The other two Consuls—at first Sieyès and Roger-Ducos, who were soon succeeded by Lebrun and Cambacères—were the advisers of the First Consul. Talleyrand was appointed Minister of the Interior, and Fouché Minister of Police. There was a *Senate* of eighty members, whose duty was to select persons for the Legislature and the chief judges and officials. The legislative power was entrusted to a *Tribunate* of one hundred members, who were to discuss the proposals of the Government, and the *Corps Legislatif*, which had the right only of approving or rejecting these proposals.

Bonaparte, after securing the chief authority in France, proposed peace to England and Austria, the only nations then at war with France; writing letters with his own hand to King George III. and the Emperor Francis II. Both powers refused to treat until the Bourbons should be restored to the throne of France, and the most en-

ergetic preparations were made on both sides for a vigorous prosecution of the war.

A French army of one hundred and thirty thousand men under Moreau advanced into Germany, gained several victories at Engen and Moeskirch, in Baden, compelled the Austrians to a hasty retreat, and advanced to Munich and laid Bavaria under contribution. Another French army of thirty-six thousand men in Italy, under Massena, was compelled to surrender to the Austrians at Genoa.

On hearing of the surrender of Massena, Bonaparte started for Italy, at the head of fifty thousand troops. He crossed the Alps at the difficult pass of Great St. Bernard. Difficulties almost insurmountable presented themselves. Precipices, ravines and eternal snows seemed to forbid a passage; but the army followed a narrow path, known to no living creature but the chamois and the hunter. The artillery was taken apart, and the pieces were placed in the hollow trunks of trees, which were drawn across the mountains by the soldiers. The troops were encouraged by the music of the bands, and where the ascent was most difficult the drums beat a charge. The Austrians were completely surprised when Bonaparte's army suddenly appeared on the Italian plains. The advance guard under General Lannes entered Piedmont, May 16, 1800. Another French division under General Moncey crossed Mt. St. Gothard, and another under



BONAPARTE CROSSING THE ALPS.

General Thuneau passed over Mont Cenis. All were reunited in Lombardy, and Bonaparte occupied Milan, June 2, 1800.

On the 9th of June, 1800, a part of the French army, under General Lannes, defeated the Austrians at Montebello; and on the 14th (June, 1800) Bonaparte at the head of twenty thousand men encountered thirty thousand Austrians under General Melas at the village of Marengo. The French were at first driven back; but the obstinate resistance of Desaix, who had just arrived from Egypt, and the charge of the brave Kellerman, changed the result; and the battle ended in the complete overthrow of the Austrian army. Among the killed on the side of the French was the heroic General Desaix. The result of the French victory was an armistice.

In November, 1800, Marshal Macdonald, with fifteen thousand French troops, crossed the Alps into Italy at the difficult pass of the Splügen, thus increasing the French forces in Italy to one hundred thousand men.

When the negotiations for peace between France and England failed, the armistice between France and Austria terminated; and an Austrian army of eighty thousand men, under the Archduke John, which had advanced into Bavaria, was defeated by the French army under Moreau in the celebrated battle of Hohenlinden, on the night of the 3d of December, 1800, and driven toward Vienna. On the 25th an armistice was concluded.

Plots for the assassination of Bonaparte were undertaken both by the republicans and by the royalists. On the 25th of December, 1800, while he was crossing a narrow street in Paris, a cask filled with powder, called "The Infernal Machine," exploded, and killed several persons; but the First Consul escaped unhurt.

The battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden completely broke the power of Austria, so that nothing remained for the Emperor but to accept such terms as France chose to dictate; and on the 9th of February, 1801, a treaty of peace, signed at Lunéville, put an end to the war between France and Aus-

tria; and England was the only country that remained at war with France. By the Peace of Lunéville, Austria recognized the Batavian, Helvetic, Ligurian and Cisalpine Republics, and ceded the Duchy of Modena to the last-named. By a subsequent treaty between France and Spain, the Grand Duchy of Tuscany was erected into the *Kingdom of Etruria* and assigned to a son-in-law of Charles IV., while Spain retroceded the vast territory of Louisiana in North America to France.

Through the influence of Bonaparte, Denmark, Sweden, Russia and Prussia had



THE CZAR PAUL OF RUSSIA.

been induced, late in the year 1800, to enter into a league against the maritime power of England. The Emperor Paul of Russia, the bitter enemy of England, was the head and soul of this league. Paul had already laid an embargo on British vessels in Russian ports, while the Danish government had ordered its vessels to resist "the right of search" claimed by the English.

After unsuccessful attempts at negotiation with the hostile powers which formed the league, the English government sent a powerful naval expedition under Lord Nelson and Sir Hyde Parker to the Baltic. On the 2d of April, 1801, the British fleet appeared before Copenhagen, when it was

furiously attacked by the Danish fleet. A bloody naval battle of four hours ensued, resulting in the defeat of the Danes, with the loss of six thousand men, while the English lost only twelve hundred. In speaking of this battle, Nelson said: "I have been in one hundred and one engagements, but the battle of Copenhagen was the most terrible of them all."

Nelson was preparing to attack the Russian fleet, when he received intelligence that the Emperor Paul had been assassinated at St. Petersburg, on the night of the 24th of March, 1801, by a band of Russian nobles, who had entered into a conspiracy for the purpose. Paul's son, ALEXANDER I., who was immediately proclaimed Emperor, declared himself the friend of Great Britain, and abandoned the hostile league. Prussia, Denmark and Sweden followed the example of Russia, and thus the league fell to pieces.

Bonaparte now threatened an invasion of England from Boulogne. Large bodies of troops were moved to this point, with the ostensible object of being transported to the English coast. The British government made energetic preparations to resist the threatened invasion. Lord Nelson was sent with a powerful fleet against Boulogne. Bonaparte, convinced of the hopelessness of success, abandoned the enterprise.

General Kleber, whom Bonaparte had left in command of the French army in Egypt, and who had maintained himself against the English and the Turks and defended himself against an army six times as large near Heliopolis, March 20, 1800, was assassinated by a fanatical Mohammedan on the very day that his comrade, General Desaix, was killed in the battle of Marengo, June 14, 1800. His army, under his successor Menou, who embraced Islam, was defeated in the battle of Canopus, near Alexandria, by the English under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who lost his life in the moment of victory, March 21, 1801. The French army, consisting of twenty-four thousand men, then surrendered on condition of being allowed to return home; and the whole French

force, with arms and ammunition and all the treasures of art and science, was conveyed to France in English vessels.

Early in 1801 Mr. Pitt, who had secured the Parliamentary Union of Great Britain and Ireland in 1800, resigned; whereupon Mr. Addington, Speaker of the House of Commons, became Prime Minister of Great Britain.

As the French were now driven out of Egypt, and the island of Malta had been recaptured by a British squadron, nothing remained to contend for between England and France; and, to the great joy of both nations, a treaty of peace was signed at Amiens, on the 27th of March, 1802. By the terms of this treaty, England was required to evacuate Egypt and to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John and the Cape of Good Hope to the Dutch. Of all her conquests during the war England only retained Ceylon and Trinidad. The Ionian Isles were recognized as an independent republic under the joint protection of Turkey and Russia. Said a witty English critic concerning the Peace of Amiens: "It is a peace which everybody is glad of and nobody proud of." But there was a general feeling of relief in England at the end of the long struggle, and the new French ambassador to England was drawn in triumph through the streets of London upon his arrival.

All Europe now enjoyed a short interval of peace, and Bonaparte directed his attention to the establishment of order and the security of his authority in France. On the 18th of September, 1801, he had made a treaty, called the *Concordat*, with Pope Pius VII. for the reestablishment of religion in France. He established a Polytechnic School for the education of young men in the sciences. He summoned the most eminent lawyers in France to arrange the *Code Napoleon*. The construction of roads, bridges and canals was commenced; and the Emigrants were invited to return to their native land. In 1802 Bonaparte was elected First Consul of the French Republic for life. A new order of nobility, founded

on individual merit, and known as the *Legion of Honor*, was instituted.

Among Bonaparte's great works was a military road across the Simplon from France to Italy. Every department of public and private industry received an impulse from Bonaparte's energetic genius, while instruction and learning were special objects of munificence. By his Concordat with Pope Pius VII., the rites of the Romish Church were restored as the state-religion of France, though Protestant worship was tolerated. All former bishoprics were suppressed. Ten new archbishoprics and fifty bishoprics were created, the incumbents to be appointed by the First Consul. The *Act of Amnesty* allowed one hundred and fifty thousand Emigrants to return to France, and such of their confiscated estates as still remained in the possession of the government were restored to them.

The island of St. Domingo, or Hayti, the largest and most important of the French possessions in the West Indies, was in a state of rebellion. The negroes, headed by Toussaint L'Ouverture, had taken up arms against their white masters, massacred many of them, and established the independence of the island. Bonaparte sent his brother-in-law Leclerc with an army of thirty-five thousand men to restore the French authority in the island. Toussaint L'Ouverture was treacherously seized, and carried a prisoner to France, where he died. The insurrection was then quelled; but when the French attempted to reëstablish slavery the negroes again rebelled, killed nearly all the French troops, and established themselves as an independent nation, adopting a republican form of government. France acknowledged the independence of St. Domingo in 1825.

The Peace of Amiens proved to be nothing more than a mere suspension of arms. The arbitrary conduct of Bonaparte toward Holland, Switzerland and Italy aroused the jealousy of the English, who accordingly refused to give up Malta, Egypt and the Cape of Good Hope, as stipulated by the Treaty of Amiens. The violent denuncia-

tions of Bonaparte by the English press, and the insulting treatment of Lord Whitworth, the British ambassador at Paris, widened the breach between England and France. In May, 1803, the English Cabinet issued letters of marque, and declared an embargo on all French vessels in British ports. Bonaparte retaliated by ordering all British subjects then in France, between the ages of sixteen and sixty years, to be seized and imprisoned. Bonaparte sold Louisiana to the United States in 1803, to prevent that remote territory from falling into England's possession.

A French force under Mortier soon overran and conquered Hanover, the hereditary possession of the King of Great Britain; and, in utter disregard of neutral rights, all Northern Germany was occupied by French troops. Hanover was exhausted by military levies and exactions; and the French obtained arms, munitions of war and splendid horses by the capitulation and disbandment of the Hanoverian army. A French army was also sent against the Kingdom of Naples.

The execution of the Treaty of Lunéville laid the Germano-Roman Empire at Bonaparte's feet. Only six of the free imperial cities remained. In the process of indemnifying temporal princes out of the territories of the Roman Catholic Church, two of the ecclesiastical Electorates disappeared, and the third was transferred with the Primacy to Ratisbon; but the number of Electors was increased by the elevation of one Catholic and three Protestant German princes to that dignity. The Archbishopric of Salzburg was created an Electorate, and conferred on the Grand Duke Ferdinand of Tuscany, the brother of the Emperor Francis II. of Germany, in exchange for his grand-duchy.

In violation of all his promises, Bonaparte annexed to France all that portion of Piedmont which had not been incorporated with the Cisalpine Republic, and also the Duchies of Parma, Piacenza and Guastala, the Swiss Canton of Valais, and the cities of Geneva and Basle.

By the so-called *Act of Mediation*, Bonaparte effected such a change in the constitution of the Helvetic Republic that the Swiss Cantons had again become independent, but the Swiss confederation was represented as a collective state by a Landamman and a Diet. Bonaparte also effected a change in the Batavian Republic, which received a new constitution corresponding nearly to the Consulate in France, the Grand Pensionary being vested with even greater authority than the old Stadtholders had ever exercised.

England had to bear the brunt of the new struggle against Bonaparte's ambition, which aimed at universal dominion. The new contest was different from the one which had just closed. The French Revolutionists had fought to resist foreign invasion and to rescue neighboring peoples from the rule of tyrants, but Bonaparte's aim was simply that of individual aggrandizement and the gratification of military ambition. He desired to be master of Europe, and allowed no notion of personal freedom or no idea of national right to interfere with his plans.

Bonaparte had immense resources at his command. The political life of the French Revolution had been ended by his military despotism, but the new social vigor which the Revolution had given to France through the abolition of privileges and the creation of a new middle class on the ruins of the clergy and the nobility still remained. The First Consul's policy silenced the dissensions which had torn France asunder. The features of this policy were the restoration of the Romish Church in France by the Concordat, his recall of one hundred and fifty thousand Emigrant exiles, and the economy and wise administration which distinguished his rule. The centralized system of government bequeathed by the Bourbon monarchy to the Revolution and by the Revolution to Bonaparte enabled him easily to seize this national vigor for the benefit of his own despotism.

The end of the brilliant hopes which the Revolution had raised, the desire for social

order, the military enthusiasm and the impulse of the new glory brought by the wonderful French victories, made a tyranny possible; and Bonaparte maintained this tyranny by a secret police, by the suppression of the press and of all freedom of opinion, and by his iron will and his immense ability. When he had been chosen First Consul for life, in 1802, he felt himself secure at home, and turned restlessly to the work of aggression on the neighboring nations.

Although the Whigs and the Tories of England had disagreed as to the policy to be pursued toward the French Revolution at its outbreak, both parties were agreed as to the war against Bonaparte's ambition. England was the only European nation which yet retained freedom in any sense. Said Sir James Mackintosh, one of the chief Whig leaders: "Every other monument of European liberty has perished. That ancient fabric which has been gradually raised by the wisdom and virtue of our forefathers still stands; but it stands alone, and it stands among ruins!"

Had England fallen before the arms of Bonaparte despotism would have become universal throughout Europe. England stood between Bonaparte and universal conquest. Had she been conquered the rest of the world would have fallen prostrate at his feet. Europe and the world owe an immense debt of gratitude to England for her heroic and persistent struggle against the giant power of the man whom the French Revolution had raised up.

As England was his greatest and most powerful enemy, it was at England that Bonaparte determined to strike the first blow in his career of conquest now about to open. Said he, alluding to the disproportion in the population of England and France: "Fifteen millions of people must give way to forty millions." His effort to strike at England's power in India by arousing the Mahrattas to war was thwarted by the defeat of the Mahrattas by Sir Arthur Wellesley at Assayé in 1803, and by the capture of Delhi and Agra by another English force under General Lake; but Bonaparte planned an in-

vasion of England on a vast scale. The French, Dutch and Spanish fleets were to assist in the enterprise; and a camp of a hundred thousand men was established at Boulogne for the ostensible purpose of making a descent upon the English coast.

England's peril recalled Mr. Pitt to power in 1804, and united both political parties in that country against Bonaparte. Upon Mr. Addington's retirement Pitt proposed to give Mr. Fox and the leading Whigs places in his Ministry, but in this he was frustrated by the king's bigotry; and the refusal of Wyndham and Lord Grenville to take office without Fox, and the subsequent retirement of his ablest supporter, Dundas, from his post left Pitt almost alone. Pitt's health was broken, and his appearance was haggard and depressed; but he faced the difficulty and danger with his old time courage.

Being an arbitrary and power-loving man, Bonaparte desired to direct and govern everything himself, and he thus created a pernicious system of centralization which crushed every vital circulation and planted the seeds of death in the whole body-politic of France. After his efforts to reconcile the old with the new, to combine the results of the Revolution with the forms and manners of the monarchical period, he very soon showed his preference for the old system by the restoration of the former arrangements and customs. The First Consul's court in the Tuileries was marked by the return of the fashions of the Bourbon period, the forms of the old etiquette and the elegance of the royal period. An aristocratic demeanor, a dignified bearing and polished manners were again esteemed as advantages of good society.

The social gifts of Bonaparte's wife Josephine, the beauty and amiability of his stepchildren, Eugene and Hortense Beauharnais, and his sisters Pauline and Elise, aided him in his new efforts. The favor shown to the recalled Emigrants made them pliant and courteous in Bonaparte's service. Madame de Staël, Necker's daughter, collected a circle of accomplished and illustrious men in her saloon, as she had formerly

done. French vanity favored Bonaparte's efforts, and republicans and royalists eagerly grasped for the Legion of Honor.

Bonaparte's despotic nature found no pleasure in a life of freedom, thus causing him to curtail the liberty and political rights of the citizens, to persecute the Jacobins and the republicans, whom he called "Ideologists," and to repose his confidence in his guard and in his vigorous police under the crafty Fouché. Frequent royalist and republican plots against the First Consul's life were always punished with fresh restrictions and a more rigorous system of espionage.

In the early part of 1804 a conspiracy against the authority of Bonaparte, in which Generals Moreau and Pichegru, and George Cadoudal, the Vendean chief, were implicated, was discovered. Moreau was allowed to retire into voluntary exile in America; Pichegru died a violent death in prison; and George Cadoudal was guillotined. Bonaparte, suspecting that the young Duke d'Enghien, a kinsman of the late royal family of France, was engaged in a plot for his assassination, caused the young prince, who was then living in the neutral territory of Baden, to be arrested and brought to Vincennes. After a trial by a court-martial, in which all the forms of justice were disregarded, the duke was sentenced to death in the night, and was immediately shot in the ditches of the castle-yard of Vincennes. This horrible crime is the greatest blot upon the character of Bonaparte. It at once ended the praises of his admirers. The poet Chateaubriand, author of the *Genius of Christianity*, resigned the office which Bonaparte's sister Eliza had conferred upon him, and retired into Switzerland.

Bonaparte made use of the royalist conspiracies to establish an hereditary monarchy. France was insecure so long as one man's death involved the fall of the government. At the instigation of Bonaparte's partisans, the proposal to make the First Consul an Emperor was made to the Tribunal, sanctioned by a decree of the Senate, May 18, 1804, ratified by the Corps Legis-

latif, and confirmed by the votes of the French people. On December 2d of the same year (1804) NAPOLEON I. was crowned *Emperor of the French* in the Cathedral of Notre Dame by Pope Pius VII., who had been induced to come to Paris for that purpose. Napoleon, however, placed the crown on his own head and on that of his wife Josephine, who knelt before him. During the same year (1804) the Emperor Francis II. of Germany assumed the title of FRANCIS I., *Emperor of Austria*, thus founding the Austrian Empire.

Napoleon's magnificent coronation was the end of the First French Republic, for



NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

which so much blood had been shed; and the old monarchical system gradually returned. The new Emperor of the French surrounded himself with a brilliant court, in which the old titles, orders and gradations of rank were revived under new names. He retained his old military simplicity; but the members of his family were created princes and princesses, his generals became marshals, and the devoted servants and promoters of his plans were connected with the throne as the great officers of the crown or as Senators with large incomes. The establishment of a new feudal nobility, with the old titles of princes, dukes, counts and

barons, completed the magnificent structure of a brilliant imperial court, which soon outshone the other courts of Europe. Cambacères became Arch Chancellor; Lebrun, Arch Treasurer; Prince Joseph Bonaparte, Grand Elector; and Prince Louis Bonaparte, Constable.

The republican system gradually disappeared from France. The old calendar was restored; the new nobility were allowed to establish the right of primogeniture; the press was placed under a censorship; and civil freedom was more and more restricted. The Emperor Napoleon I. could not tolerate any opposition; and for that reason he first reduced the Tribunate to fifty members, and then abolished the whole Tribunate, A. D. 1807. The only alternative thenceforth was obedience, and France was subjected to a tyranny more severe than that of the old Bourbon monarchy. But, as the tyrant was a great man, the French people willingly submitted to him. No matter how severely the rigorous conscription, the stringent restrictions upon trade and heavy taxation might press upon them, the burden was borne all the more lightly, as the great ends of the Revolution—equality before the law, the peasants' right of property in the soil and other possessions—were left undisturbed.

Industry made great progress; civil arts and trades received a mighty impulse; and an unusual prosperity became visible in every part of France. Magnificent roads, like those over the Alps, canals, bridges and all kinds of improvements still exist as eloquent memorials of the restless activity of this wonderful man. Paris was adorned with magnificent palaces, majestic bridges and noble streets. The Louvre contained all that was great or magnificent in the production of art. The French capital shone with a splendor never before witnessed. The University of Paris was arranged upon a most magnificent footing, and appointed the supreme court of supervision over the entire system of schools and education. The glory conferred upon the French nation by its Emperor rendered every yoke light



NAPOLEON I.

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to the nation. The French people forgot that the voice of freedom was passing away in the midst of the clash of arms and the clang of trumpets, and that the high-sounding tone of bulletins and the ornate language of the Senate and the Corps Legislatif were destructive of truth and justice.

After assuming the title of Emperor, Napoleon appeared in the camp at Boulogne, and said: "Let us be masters of the Chan-

nel for six hours, and we are masters of the world." An invasion of England was now imminent, but Napoleon's skillfully combined plan for a division of the British fleet while the entire French navy was in the English Channel was delayed by the death of the French admiral who was to execute it. hostility to England, caused several of the Spanish treasure ships, while on their home voyage from South America, to be seized in the fall of 1804 without a previous declaration of war. The Spanish government, upon hearing of this hasty and unjustifiable act, was so exasperated that it immediately declared war against England, and entered into a close alliance with France, December, 1804.



EMPERESS JOSEPHINE.

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The British government, believing that Spain had secretly united with France in

On the 26th of May, 1805, Napoleon was crowned *King of Italy* at Milan. The iron crown of Charlemagne was brought forward for the occasion; and Napoleon, placing it on his head, uttered the words: "God has given it to me. Beware of touching it." Eugene Beauharnais, Napoleon's step-son, was appointed viceroy of the *Kingdom of Italy*, which was enlarged by the annexa-

tion of Parma; while Napoleon assigned Lucca to his sister Eliza, the wife of the Corsican Bacciocchi. Genoa was annexed to France.

Napoleon's alliance with Spain placed the Spanish fleet at his disposal in 1805; and he formed a new scheme for the combination of the French and Spanish fleets, for crushing the squadron under Admiral Cornwallis before Lord Nelson's fleet could come to its rescue, and for thus making a descent upon the English coast by the vast armament. England made gigantic preparations to resist the threatened invasion, and three hundred thousand volunteers mustered for that purpose. But Mr. Pitt trusted more to the new Coalition which he formed against Napoleon on the Continent of Europe.

The general alarm created by the usurpations of Napoleon in Germany, Holland, Italy and Switzerland, and the influence of English gold, induced Austria, Russia and Sweden to unite in a Coalition with England against France, August, 1805. There was a strong party in Prussia, under the high-spirited queen, Louisa, and Prince Louis Ferdinand, in favor of joining the Coalition against the Emperor of the French; but the three Ministers—Haugwitz, Lucchesini and Lombard—who were favorable to France, and wholly lacking in patriotism, still possessed the confidence of the peace-loving King Frederick William III. Thus Prussia remained neutral for the time, to its subsequent sorrow.

While the attention of all Europe was directed to Boulogne, where Napoleon was fitting out his vast armament for the invasion of England, he was silently making his preparations for the memorable campaign of 1805. His talents for command and his military genius were never displayed in a more brilliant light than in this campaign. With the greatest promptitude, Napoleon suddenly broke up his camp at Boulogne, assembled an army on the Rhine, and marched eastward for the purpose of driving the Austrians out of Bavaria, which they had invaded in utter disregard of neutral rights.

Assured of the assistance of most of the South German princes, Napoleon crossed the Rhine in September, 1805, with seven divisions commanded by his most experienced marshals—Ney, Murat, Lannes, Soult, Marmont and others; while Bernadotte disregarded Prussia's neutrality by marching through the Brandenburg Margravate of Anspach-Bayreuth upon the Isar. This violation of Prussian territory so irritated King Frederick William III. that he entered into closer relationship with the allies, and assumed a menacing attitude, without declaring war.

The Electors of Baden, Würtemberg and Bavaria, the Dukes of Hesse and Nassau and other German princes reinforced Napoleon's army with their troops; as they had as much to expect from his grace as they had to fear from his frowns. After Marshal Ney's victory at Elchingen, October 14, 1805, the Austrian detachment under General Mack was shut up in Ulm and cut off from the main army of the allies. Helpless and despairing of deliverance, the incompetent General Mack opened negotiations with the French which ended in his disgraceful capitulation, by which he surrendered Ulm with thirty-three thousand Austrian troops, including thirteen generals, as prisoners of war, and all their colors, magazines and artillery, October 20, 1805. With the deepest humiliation the heroic Austrian warriors marched before Napoleon, laid down their arms before the victor, placed forty banners at his feet, and delivered up sixty cannon with their horses. A division of twenty thousand Austrians, which had escaped from Ulm, was surrounded and captured at Nördlingen. General Mack was court-martialed and deprived of his command by order of the Austrian government.

On the very next day after Mack's disgraceful capitulation at Ulm the naval power of France received a blow from which it never recovered. The French fleet under Admiral Villeneuve, after sailing from Toulon, united with the Spanish fleet under Admiral Gravina at Corunna. Then the combined fleets sailed toward the West In-

dies, but suddenly returned to Cadiz and hastened to unite with the French squadron at Brest and to crush the English fleet in the Channel. But the headlong pursuit of the English fleet under Lord Nelson before the maneuver of the allied fleets was complete brought the two fleets face to face off Cape Trafalgar, on the south-western coast of Spain, where the decisive naval combat was fought, October 21, 1805.

On the eve of the battle Nelson had read from the mast-head of his flag-ship the famous signal: "England expects every man to do his duty." A deafening shout went up from the whole English fleet, thus declaring every man's acceptance of the heroic admiral's appeal. This was Nelson's last order. He was struck by a musket-ball in the very heat of the conflict, while standing on the deck of his flag-ship, the *Victory*. He drew his cloak about him and

covered his face with his handkerchief, so that his crew might not see that he was wounded. He was carried below, and the battle went on for three hours while he was in his death-agony. Learning at last that his fleet had gained a complete victory, England's greatest naval hero's soul departed, with the exclamation: "Thank God, I have done my duty!" The French admiral, Villeneuve, committed suicide in despair. Most of the French and Spanish vessels were captured.

Upon hearing of this great victory, Pitt gave utterance to these words: "England has saved herself by her courage. She will save Europe by her example." Nelson's victory was dearly purchased with his death, and his country's grief was shown by the honors paid to his memory. His brother was raised to the peerage. His widow was granted a liberal pension. His remains were deposited in St. Paul's Cathedral, accompanied by a procession more splendid

than any that had ever been witnessed on a similar occasion; and a monument was erected to his memory at the public expense, as a lasting testimony of national gratitude. His companions in victory also received rewards. Admiral Collingwood was raised to the peerage, and a liberal provision was made for the wounded and for the families of the slain. In London this victory is commemorated by the name of Tra-



LORD NELSON.

falgar Square, and no other Englishman has been honored like Nelson.

The war party in Prussia had gained the ascendancy since Bernadotte's violation of Prussian territory. During a visit of the Czar Alexander I. to Berlin he and King Frederick William III. swore eternal friendship for each other and enmity to Napoleon, over the coffin of Frederick the Great, in the church of the garrison at Potsdam; after which the Prussian king sent his Minister

Haugwitz with threatening demands to Napoleon.

Proceeding in his victorious career along the Danube, in the Austrian territories, Napoleon defeated the Russians under Kutusoff and Bagration in a series of bloody engagements, the most important of which was the battle of Dirnstein, November 11, 1805. Napoleon entered Vienna, November 13, 1805; and the Prince of Auersburg, who had orders either to defend the bridge over the Danube, which was fortified and filled with gunpowder, or to blow it into the air, suffered himself to be so thoroughly deceived by the French general's craft, and by pretended negotiations for peace, that he surrendered it to the French without any defense and in good condition. The irresolution of the Emperor Francis II., and the dissensions between the Austrians and the Russians, facilitated the victory of the French, who pursued the Austro-Russian army into Moravia, defeating it in constant engagements and capturing an immense booty.

At Austerlitz, in Moravia, December 2, 1805, was fought the *Three Emperors' Battle*, in which the winter sun shone upon the most brilliant of all Napoleon's victories. The allied Austrians and Russians lost ten thousand men killed, while twenty thousand were taken prisoners, and one hundred and twenty cannon were among the spoils of victory. The Emperors of Germany and Russia witnessed the battle from a neighboring eminence; and after the battle the Emperor Francis II., who desired peace, allowed himself to be persuaded to pay an humble visit to Napoleon in his tent, and consented to an armistice stipulating for the retreat of the Russians from the Austrian states.

The negotiations which then commenced ended in the Peace of Presburg between France and Austria, December 26, 1805, by which Austria relinquished territory containing three million inhabitants. Thus the House of Hapsburg lost the territory of Venice, which was annexed to Napoleon's Kingdom of Italy; the Tyrol and Vorarl-

berg, which were annexed to Bavaria; and a part of Austria, of which the Breisgau and the lands of the Black Forest were assigned to Baden. This treaty conferred the title of kings upon the Electors of Bavaria and Würtemberg, Napoleon's allies; while Baden was erected into a grand-duchy.

The new Kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg and the Grand Duke of Baden were united with the Bonaparte dynasty by ties of relationship. The daughter of the new Bavarian king, Maximilian Joseph, was married to Napoleon's step-son, Eugene Beauharnais. Catharine, the daughter of the King of Würtemberg, was married to Napoleon's frivolous brother, Jerome Bonaparte, who had just been divorced from his citizen wife. Charles, the grandson of the Grand Duke of Baden, was married to Stephanie Beauharnais, a niece of the Empress Josephine, who had been adopted by Napoleon. The lands on the Lower Rhine were annexed to the Duchy of Cleve-Berg, with the capital Düsseldorf, and conferred upon Joachim Murat, who had married Napoleon's sister Pauline.

Napoleon compelled Holland to accept a monarchical government in the place of her republican constitution, and conferred the crown of the new kingdom upon his brother LOUIS BONAPARTE. The royal family of Naples had violated its neutrality by receiving an Anglo-Russian fleet which had landed at Naples during the war; and on the day after the Peace of Presburg, December 27, 1805, Napoleon published a decree that "the dynasty of the Bourbons has ceased to reign in Naples." Napoleon conferred the crown of Naples on his brother JOSEPH BONAPARTE, who was installed in his new dignity by a French army under Marshal Massena which invaded the Kingdom of Naples just as the English and Russians were withdrawn in consequence of the battle of Austerlitz. King Ferdinand IV. fled to Sicily; but his high-spirited queen, Caroline, remained at Naples, and raised an army of *lazzaroni* and brigands, which she reinforced by convicts from the jails. The better class of Neapolitans hailed the French as deliverers from

the disorderly and dangerous rabble, and Marshal Massena entered the city without resistance. Joseph Bonaparte's army was defeated at Maida by the English under General Stuart, in July, 1806; and his dominion was further menaced by a general rising of the Neapolitan peasantry incited by the agents of Queen Caroline; but, after capturing Gaëta, Marshal Massena suppressed the insurrection and restored order.

Napoleon endowed his sisters with Italian principalities, and his favorite marshals and statesmen were rewarded by the investiture of newly created "fiefs of the Empire." Thus Berthier became Prince of Neuchâtel; Talleyrand became Prince of Benevento; and Bernadotte became Prince of Ponte Corvo.

After the battle of Austerlitz the Prussian ambassador Haugwitz did not venture to convey the charge of his court to the victorious French Emperor. Without asking permission from his king, Haugwitz suffered himself to be induced, partly by threats and partly by Napoleon's engaging affability, to sign an unfavorable treaty, by which Prussia exchanged the Franconian principality of Anspach, some lands on the Lower Rhine, and the principality of Neuremberg in Switzerland, for Hanover, the hereditary German possession of the King of Great Britain. King Frederick William III. vainly opposed the exchange, which threatened to involve him in war with England. As he was separated from Austria by the conclusion of the Peace of Presburg, he had no other alternative than to submit to the victor's terms. Thus the King of Prussia tore the treaty which he had signed with the Czar over the grave of Frederick the Great, and he congratulated the Emperor of the French upon his great victory at Austerlitz. Napoleon coldly replied: "This compliment was intended for another, but Fortune has changed the address."

The news of the sudden change of affairs caused by the battle of Austerlitz hurried Mr. Pitt, the English Prime Minister, to an early grave. Upon hearing of the defeat of England's allies in that great battle, he pointed to a map of Europe which hung on

the wall, saying: "Roll up that map. It will not be wanted these ten years." Though he was only forty-seven, his hollow voice and wasted frame had long told that his days were few; and the great blow to his hopes involved in the failure of the Coalition which he had raised up proved fatal to him. He died January 23, 1806, his last words being: "Alas! my country!" He was honored with a public funeral; and his remains were interred in Westminster Abbey, beside those of his illustrious father. Lord Wellesley exclaimed: "What grave contains such a father and such a son! What sepulcher embosoms the remains of so much human excellence and glory!" Wilberforce wrote in his diary: "Austerlitz killed Pitt." A monument was erected to his memory at the national expense.

Pitt had been the soul of the Coalition against Napoleon. His rival, Mr. Fox, succeeded him as Prime Minister of Great Britain, and opened negotiations for peace, which, however, failed; and Mr. Fox was as resolute in opposing the ambition of Napoleon as Pitt had been. Both parties in England sustained Mr. Fox in this policy, and all internal questions were subordinated to this one question of saving Europe from the grasping power of Napoleon. But in September, 1806, Fox also passed to his grave; and Lord Grenville became his successor as Prime Minister of Great Britain.

The most decisive act in Napoleon's foreign policy was the subversion of the Germano-Roman Empire, the constitution of which had already received a terrible blow by the elevation of the Elector of Bavaria and the Duke of Würtemberg to the rank of independent kings. Napoleon therefore entertained the project of removing Southern and Western Germany entirely from the influence of Austria and of uniting them under his own power. Self-interest was more powerful than patriotism with these German princes, who subordinated the interests of the German Fatherland to their own individual aggrandizement. A prospect of enlarging their own respective territories, and fear of the mighty potentate

who seemed absolutely invincible in arms, induced many of the German princes to transfer their allegiance from the German Emperor to the French Emperor.

Accordingly sixteen princes in the South and West of Germany—including the Kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg, the Grand Dukes of Baden and Hesse Darmstadt, and the Prince-Primate—concluded a treaty with Napoleon at Paris, July 12, 1806, by which they seceded from the German Empire, formed the *Confederation of the Rhine*, and placed themselves under Napoleon's protection; while the French Emperor, as Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, recognized the full sovereignty of the individual members of the Confederation on condition of their maintaining a certain contingent of troops under arms and at his disposal. Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, Hesse Darmstadt, Nassau and several others of the most important German states formed the nucleus around which the lesser principalities, such as Hohenzollern, Leichtensten, Solms and others, collected themselves, until at length almost all of the German states joined the Rhenish Confederation.

The Elector-Archchancellor Dalberg—who had been made Prince-Primate, and who had received Frankfort, along with Hanau and Fulda, in Hesse Cassel, as a principality—was made Napoleon's representative in the Confederation of the Rhine.

The power of most of the princes of the Confederation was considerably augmented by the subjection of many small and formerly independent states of the German Empire under Napoleon's dominion.

On August 1, 1806, the French ambassador at Ratisbon notified the German Imperial Diet that his sovereign, having accepted the Protectorate of the Confederation of the Rhine, no longer recognized the existence of the German Empire; and on August 6, 1806, Francis II. published a declaration in which he stated that, finding it impossible to fulfill the obligations which devolved upon him as the elective head of the German nation, he considered the bonds which

attached him to the Germanic body-politic forever dissolved, renounced the title of the elective office of Emperor of Germany, withdrew the whole of his hereditary Austrian states from the German Union, and thereafter reigned only as Francis I., hereditary Emperor of Austria, which title he had assumed in 1804, and which has ever since been borne by the imperial House of Hapsburg.

Thus ended the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation, after an existence of one thousand and six years, from the time that Pope Leo III. placed the diadem of the Cæsars upon the head of Charlemagne, A. D. 800. It had long been reduced to a mere shadow by internal dissensions and a powerless imperial government. Its mightiest limbs had now become the vassals of a foreign despot. Many a patriotic German heart felt keenly the degradation of the Fatherland; but none dared to utter their inmost thoughts after the bookseller Palm, of Nuremberg, had become the victim of an infamous judicial murder for his refusal to give the name of the author of a pamphlet which he published on the debasement of Germany.

The accession of so numerous and powerful a vassalage was of vast importance to Napoleon, as it placed an army of seventy thousand men at his disposal—a number afterward increased to one hundred and twenty thousand by the enlargement of the Confederation of the Rhine.

The princes of the Confederation of the Rhine had kept their movements secret from King Frederick William III. of Prussia; although his brother-in-law, the Prince of Orange, who had been deprived of the Stadtholdership of Holland, thereby became a vassal of Joachim Murat, Napoleon's brother-in-law, the new Grand Duke of Berg.

The wavering policy of the King of Prussia during the late campaign in Germany and Austria had aroused Napoleon's anger, and convinced him that Frederick William III. would be untrustworthy as an ally and cowardly as an enemy. The French Emperor therefore cast aside all respect and

forbearance, and intentionally inflicted many mortifications upon the Prussian government. The irritation thus produced soon developed into a complete rupture between France and Prussia from two causes.

The formation of the Confederation of the Rhine indicated Napoleon's intention of gradually making Germany as dependent upon the French Empire as Italy and Holland were already. Prussia therefore attempted to thwart Napoleon's design by the formation of a North German Confederation in opposition to the Confederation of the Rhine, inviting all the German states which had not yet joined the Rhenish Confederation to join this rival league. Prussia was highly exasperated when Napoleon frustrated this project.

At the same time it became known to the court of Berlin that, during the renewal of the negotiations for peace between France and England, Napoleon had offered to restore the Electorate of Hanover to King George III., without consulting Prussia on the subject, although that Electorate had been conferred upon the Prussian king by Napoleon after the Peace of Presburg. The French Emperor had conferred Hanover on the King of Prussia, ostensibly as a reward for his neutrality during the Austerlitz campaign, but really for the purpose of involving him in a war with the King of Great Britain; and it had been considered a badge of his humiliation. Napoleon's design of wresting from King Frederick William III. the territory so recently conferred upon him was a mark of contempt too palpable to be endured.

Napoleon's action in the case of Hanover, together with the violations of Prussian territory by the French, strengthened the war party at the Prussian court, in which Queen Louisa was the moving spirit, and which also included the leading Prussian statesmen and generals. Unfortunately for herself, Prussia had lost the confidence of all Europe by her vacillation during Napoleon's Austro-Russian campaign of the previous year, when she finally decided not to join the Coalition against France; and she now

found that she had to oppose Napoleon's entire force with no immediate aid but that of the Elector Frederick Augustus of Saxony. Most of the Prussian generals were old men. Their commander-in-chief, Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, had won his spurs in the Seven Years' War as the companion-in-arms of Frederick the Great.

Convinced that nothing was to be expected from France, the Prussian government issued an ultimatum demanding a redress of all grievances, placed its army on a war-footing, and severed its diplomatic intercourse with France. While the people of Berlin were expecting the final answer from France, Napoleon and his experienced marshals with one hundred thousand troops were already in the heart of Thuringia and Saxony, the Elector of which had formed an alliance with Prussia after some hesitation. Thus Napoleon began his Prussian campaign of 1806 with his usual promptitude and energy, and while the Prussian commander expected to find the French forces dispersed in Franconia they were on his left flank and cutting off his communications with the Russians.

The Prussians were defeated by Marshal Bernadotte at Schleitz and by Marshal Lannes at Saalfeld, where Prince Louis of Prussia was killed, October 10, 1806. When Napoleon got into the rear of the Prussian army, destroyed Naumberg, the chief place of deposit for the Prussian stores and magazines, and was marching on Leipsic, the Duke of Brunswick perceived the true condition of affairs. He then attempted to retreat, accompanied by King Frederick William III., the Prince of Orange and many of the most distinguished Prussian generals, leaving a part of his army under Prince Hohenlohe at Jena; thus bringing on the great battles of Jena and Auerstadt, fought on the same day, and which placed the Prussian monarchy prostrate at the feet of Napoleon, October 14, 1806.

At Jena one part of the French army under Napoleon annihilated the Prussian army under Prince Hohenlohe. Marshals Lannes, Augereau, Soult and Murat carried destruc-

tion into the Prussian ranks, driving their infantry and cavalry in headlong flight from the sanguinary field, and compelling them to retreat to Weimar. The fleeing army of

where old Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick was defeated and mortally wounded by the French under Marshal Davoust. In this double battle of Jena and Auerstadt the vic-



QUEEN LOUISA OF PRUSSIA.

Prince Hohenlohe met the other portion of the Prussian army fleeing in the same wild panic from the sanguinary field of Auerstadt,

where the victorious French lost fourteen thousand men and the vanquished Prussians forty thousand. On that fatal day the Prussians also

lost twenty generals, sixty standards and three hundred cannon.

The effect of this great catastrophe was that the former presumption and rashness of the Prussian generals turned to despondency and panic, and they became utterly helpless. The routed divisions of the Prussian army roamed about the country, seeking to escape, but everywhere falling an easy prey into the hands of the triumphant French. Mollendorf with fourteen thousand Prussian troops surrendered to the French under Marshals Ney and Murat at Erfurt. The Prussian corps under Kalkreuth was captured in the Hartz mountains. Eugene of Würtemberg and sixteen thousand Prussians were made prisoners at Halle. Prince Hohenlohe, with seventeen thousand men of his wrecked army, laid down his arms at Prenzlau. After a severe engagement at Lübeck, Blücher and his corps of twenty thousand Prussians surrendered at Schwerta. At Colberg the Prussian garrison under Gneisenau and Schill, with the support of the brave citizen Nettlebeck, heroically resisted the superior force of the French.

With such wonderful celerity did the strong Prussian fortresses surrender to the French that the commandants of many of them were suspected of treachery. So utterly unaccountable did such cowardice and such entire lack of self-reliance appear. Thus the fortresses of Spandau, Stettin, Küstrin, Hameln and Magdeburg all fell into the possession of the French. The garrison of Magdeburg, which numbered twenty thousand men, was superior in number to the French force to which it surrendered. Napoleon entered Berlin, the Prussian capital, October 25, 1806.

After entering Berlin, the French Emperor visited the tomb of Frederick the Great, and sent the sword and insignia of that famous warrior king as precious trophies to Paris.

In November, 1806, Napoleon issued his famous *Berlin Decree* from the royal palace at Berlin, declaring the British Isles in a state of blockade and excluding British manufactures from the ports of Continental

Europe, thus establishing the *Continental System*, by which Napoleon hoped to destroy English commerce and thus strike a deadly blow at the prosperity of his most powerful foe. Great Britain's retaliatory *Order-in-Council*, declaring the blockade of all Continental ports from which the British flag was excluded, was followed by Napoleon's *Milan Decree*, December 17, 1807, threatening the confiscation of any vessel submitting to English search. The paralyzing effects of the Continental System were mainly felt by the Continental nations; and, in spite of Napoleon's Berlin and Milan Decrees, contracts for the clothing of French soldiers had actually been made in England, as the Hanse towns were unable to execute such contracts.

In the meantime Louis Bonaparte conquered the country as far as the Weser, while Jerome Bonaparte subdued Silesia, and the Prussian monarchy was almost annihilated. Jena and East Friesland were annexed to Holland; and the Hanse towns and Leipzig were deprived of English goods and oppressed with heavy military taxes for the support of the French army; while the trophies of former Prussian victories, and the treasures of art and science, were seized by Napoleon's conquering troops and carried away.

The Elector of Hesse, who desired to remain neutral, and who had withdrawn his forces from the struggle, was obliged to surrender both his dominions and his army to the French, and to seek refuge in exile. He took up his residence at Prague. Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, who had been severely wounded at Auerstadt, and who was conveyed into his capital on a litter, was forced to seek an asylum in Denmark to die unmolested. He died on the way, and his son swore to avenge him.

Only to the Elector of Saxony, whose troops fought on the Prussian side at Jena, did the French Emperor show any favor. He released his Saxon prisoners and granted the Elector a favorable peace, and conferred upon him the title of king; whereupon that German prince joined the Confederation of

the Rhine, as the other Saxon dukes had done. Thenceforth Frederick Augustus of Saxony, to his own misfortune and that of his subjects, felt himself under obligation by the ties of gratitude to remain an ally of Napoleon.

The King of Prussia fled to Königsberg, where he vainly endeavored to obtain peace, as Napoleon's demands rose with his fortunes. King Frederick William III. in his distress solicited the aid of the Emperor Alexander I. of Russia, who immediately sent a powerful army under Benningsen into East Prussia for the purpose of preventing the French from crossing the Vistula.

Thereupon Napoleon issued a proclamation to the Poles, pretendedly in Kosciuszko's name, by which he summoned those oppressed and wronged people to fight for their liberty and independence. The Poles gladly made the greatest sacrifices, and reinforced the French ranks with their heroic soldiers under Dombrowski's command. Napoleon entered Warsaw, November 30, 1806, amid the rejoicings of the inhabitants; but the Poles soon discovered that the French Emperor was more intent upon the gratification of his own ambition than upon the reëstablishment of Polish independence. Kosciuszko, who had accepted the Czar's protection, and who felt that his countrymen had nothing to gain by a change of tyrants, disavowed and discouraged the Polish rising.

In order to prevent the Emperor of Russia from sending aid to the King of Prussia, Napoleon embroiled the Czar in a quarrel with the Sultan of Turkey. General Sebastiani, the French ambassador at Constantinople, had so great an influence over the Divan that the Sublime Porte was for some time wholly under his direction. He fanned the spark of discord already existing between the Czar and the Sultan, and prevailed upon the Porte to refuse to renew the treaty of alliance with England. The Emperor Alexander I. ordered General Michelson to occupy the Turkish tributary provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia; where-

upon Turkey declared war against Russia, December 30, 1806, but deviated from a barbarous custom by allowing M. d'Italinski, the Russian ambassador at the Turkish capital, to depart unmolested.

A few days later Mr. Arbuthnot, the British ambassador at Constantinople, left that city, after having repeatedly demanded the renewal of the alliance between England and Turkey, and the expulsion of General Sebastiani from the Turkish capital. In January, 1807, a British squadron under Admiral Duckworth forced the passage of the Dardanelles and appeared before Constantinople, where he demanded that the Ottoman fleet and the forts on the Dardanelles should be surrendered to him, and that the Sublime Porte should renounce the alliance with Bonaparte and cede Moldavia and Wallachia to Russia. Admiral Duckworth's appearance created a panic at Constantinople, but his delay gave the Turks time to prepare for defense, and under General Sebastiani's direction they made such preparations that the British fleet was obliged to repass at the end of a week. Upon arriving at Malta, Admiral Duckworth took five thousand British troops under General Fraser on board his ships and conveyed them to Egypt, which had been distracted by civil war between the Turks and the Mamelukes ever since the French evacuation of the country in 1801. The English under General Fraser occupied Alexandria, March 20, 1807, but were obliged to surrender that city by capitulation to Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, six months later.

Other British expeditions during 1806 and 1807 were unusually unsuccessful. A British armament under Sir Home Popham had taken Buenos Ayres, in South America, from the Spaniards; but the city was afterward recovered by its inhabitants, and another British armament under General Whitelocke failed signally and disgracefully in its efforts to recapture the town.

Sanguinary battles were fought between the Russians and the French on the Vistula, and torrents of blood were shed. The

Russians had the advantage in the battle of Pultusk, December 26, 1806.

On February 8, 1807, a sanguinary but indecisive battle was fought at Eylau, in East Prussia, between one hundred thousand French troops under Napoleon and the same number of Russians under Benningsen. Each army claimed the victory, each lost twenty thousand men, and both were so weakened and exhausted that military operations were suspended for four months. Although the field of Eylau remained in Napoleon's possession during the battle, his terrible losses caused him to fall back to the Vistula and to offer peace.

The King of Prussia, who had just been reassured by a fresh treaty with Russia and Great Britain, receiving a subsidy of a million pounds sterling from the latter power, in turn refused Napoleon's peace offers. Although King Frederick William III. desired peace in order to free his subjects from the dreadful exactions of the French, he was too honest to desert his ally, the Czar of Russia.

At last the Silesian fortresses on the Oder—Glogau, Brieg, Schweidnitz and Breslau—came into the possession of the French through the cowardice of the commandants of the garrisons; and even the strongly-fortified Prussian town of Dantzic, on the Baltic coast, was surrendered, with its garrison of seventeen thousand men under Kalckreuth, and nine hundred cannon, to the French under Marshal Lefevre, May 24, 1807, after a vigorous siege. These losses made the King of Prussia despair of a successful issue of the war.

After an interruption of four months, the campaign between the main armies opened; and thirty thousand French troops were disastrously repulsed in an attack upon the strong Russian position at Hielsberg, June 5, 1807. On June 14, 1807—the anniversary of the battle of Marengo—Napoleon severely defeated the Russian army under Benning-sen, two hundred thousand strong, in the great and decisive battle of Friedland, with the loss of sixty thousand men. The shattered hosts of the Russian army retreated

to the banks of the Niemen, and the French took possession of Königsberg.

Hostilities were now suspended; and, amid the cheers of both armies, the French and Russian Emperors met on a raft moored in the middle of the Niemen at Tilsit, where negotiations were opened. The Czar Alexander I., who appears to have conceived a sudden and romantic admiration for Napoleon similar to that which his predecessor, Peter III., had entertained for Frederick the Great, assured the French Emperor that he fully shared his dislike for England and that he was ready to unite with him in measures to diminish her power. Thereupon Napoleon declared that, if such was the case, peace was made already.

King Frederick William III. of Prussia, with his high-spirited queen Louisa, soon made his appearance at Tilsit, but was not admitted by Napoleon to the same footing of equality with the Emperor Alexander I. Queen Louisa of Prussia, who had the gifts of beauty, wit and grace, exerted herself to her utmost to gain Napoleon's good will in order to obtain favorable terms of peace for her husband. But Napoleon, according to his own boast to Josephine, "was as proof against all her lady-like artifices as wax-cloth against rain."

Upon one occasion Napoleon offered the Queen of Prussia a beautiful rose. The fascinating queen at first appeared to decline receiving the courtesy, but then accepted it with the remark: "At least with Magdeburg." Napoleon replied: "Your Majesty will be pleased to remember that it is I who offer, and that Your Majesty has only the task of accepting."

By the Peace of Tilsit, signed July 7, 1807, Prussia was partitioned. The eastern portion of that kingdom—which had once formed a part of the Republic of Poland—was erected into the *Grand Duchy of Warsaw*, and was bestowed on the King of Saxony, Napoleon's new ally; while Dantzic was erected into a free state. The western portion of Prussia—the portion between the Rhine and the Elbe—along with Electoral Hesse, the Duchy of Brunswick and



NAPOLEON AND QUEEN LOUISA OF PRUSSIA AT TILSIT.

the southern portion of the Electorate of Hanover, was erected into the *Kingdom of Westphalia*, which was conferred on JEROME BONAPARTE, Napoleon's youngest brother, whose capital was fixed at Cassel; Jerome, as a member of the Confederation of the Rhine, being required to furnish his imperial brother with Westphalian troops and to bestow upon him half of his revenues. The King of Prussia was left in possession of little more than half of his dominions, and even these would have been taken from him had it not been for the generous intercession of the Emperor Alexander I. in his



THE EMPEROR ALEXANDER I. OF RUSSIA.

behalf; while he was also required to pay an immense war-indemnity to his conqueror. The Emperor of Russia recognized the royal titles of Napoleon's brothers, and agreed to aid Napoleon in his designs against British commerce by excluding British manufactures from the Russian dominions.

The battles of Austerlitz and Jena had so completely broken the power of Austria and Prussia that the destinies of Europe were for several years controlled by France, Russia and England; and these three great powers paid no regard to the rights of the weak and defenseless nations of Europe, as was shown by their proceedings in Swe-

den and Denmark. Only where the power of self-defense was able to offer a successful resistance did these three great powers respect the rights of other nations. Each, in its eagerness to circumvent the plans of its enemies, violated the most sacred rights of other nations, even of those that desired to remain neutral.

Russia was now at war with England, Turkey and Persia. Her war with Persia had commenced in 1803, when the Czar Alexander I. had annexed Georgia to the Russian Empire, and continued until 1813. The chief events of this Russo-Persian war were the defeat of the Persians at Etschmiazin by the Russians under Prince Zianoff, June 20, 1804; the conquest of the Persian province of Shirvan by the same Russian general, January, 1806; the capture of Derbend by the Russians, July 3, 1806; and the defeat of the Persians by the Russian force under Paulucci at Alkolwalaki, September 1, 1810.

When Russia became involved in war with Turkey at the close of 1806 the Ottoman Empire appeared on the eve of dissolution. The Pasha Paswan Oglou of Widin, Ali Pasha of Janina, and the Servians under Czerni George, were in revolt; the Pasha Djezzar of Syria was virtually independent; the sect of the Wahabees was in possession of Arabia; and Egypt was distracted by civil wars between the Turks and the Mamelukes. Sultan Selim III. was dethroned by a revolt of the Janizaries, May 29, 1807, when he attempted to remodel the Ottoman army, and was succeeded by his cousin MUSTAPHA IV., who reigned only two months in the midst of the greatest confusion. Mustapha Pasha, an adherent of the deposed Selim III., marched on Constantinople with an army of forty thousand Albanians for the purpose of restoring the deposed Sultan. When Mustapha Pasha arrived at the walls of the Seraglio he was shocked with the sight of the dead body of Selim III., who had been put to death by the new Sultan's order. Mustapha Pasha deposed Mustapha IV., and raised his brother MAIMOURD II. to the

Turkish throne. The first year of the new Sultan's reign was disturbed by an insurrection of the Janizaries, who set fire to the Grand Vizier's palace and blew it up with gunpowder; and the troubles were only quelled by the Sultan's concession in abolishing army reform.

The Russian campaign of 1807 in Turkey was not productive of any results, as the campaign against Napoleon occupied the attention of Russia. Czerni George and his revolted Servians took Belgrade, Sabatz and Nissa, invaded Bulgaria and united with the Russians, gaining many advantages. The Russians under General Michelson defeated the Turks at Giurgevo, March 17, 1807. In Asiatic Turkey the Russians under General Gudovitch defeated the Turks near Erzeroum, in Armenia, June 18, 1807. The Russian fleet under Vice Admiral Siniawin defeated the Turkish fleet under the Capitan Pasha off the island of Lemnos. By the Peace of Tilsit, the Emperor of Russia agreed to evacuate Moldavia and Wallachia and make peace with the Ottoman Porte; and the French General Guilleminot succeeded in negotiating an armistice at Slobosia, August 24, 1807; but, as the Czar Alexander I. refused to ratify the treaty, the Russians did not evacuate Moldavia and Wallachia, as provided for by the treaty.

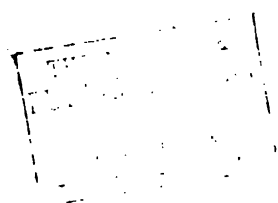
Although Russia and Prussia concluded peace with France, the eccentric Gustavus IV., King of Sweden, obstinately continued the war, and held fast to his alliance with Great Britain. His conduct at first displayed strength of character and magnanimity; but his boundless conceit, and his utter misapprehension of his position and his powers, soon showed that his mind must be unbalanced. Strongly imbued with the sanctity of the principle of legitimate royal right, he refused to recognize Napoleon as Emperor of the French, and addressed him simply as General Bonaparte. Completely given up to religious fanaticism, he believed himself ordained by Providence to restore the Bourbons to the throne of France and to overthrow the "Beast of the Revelations," as he called Napoleon.

Gustavus IV. carried his hatred against Napoleon to such an extent as to mortally offend Russia and Prussia by sending back their orders and expelling their ambassadors from Stockholm because those two powers had made peace with the French Emperor. The French conquered Stralsund and the island of Rugen, and an English expedition to aid the King of Sweden failed in its enterprise.

In the meantime Lord Grenville's Ministry—which had procured the abolition of the slave trade in the British colonies by act of Parliament, in February, 1807, through the efforts of William Wilberforce, and against the fierce opposition of the Tory party and of the Liverpool slave merchants—was dismissed from office by King George III. upon the first intimation of their scheme for the removal of civil and political disabilities from Roman Catholics, March, 1807; and a new Ministry was formed of Mr. Pitt's friends under the Premiership of the Duke of Portland, but whose leading spirit was the young Secretary of Foreign Affairs, George Canning, a young and devoted adherent of Pitt. Canning's brilliant rhetoric gave him an influence over the House of Commons, while the vigor and breadth of his mind gave a new energy to the war against Napoleon.

As Russia, the former ally of Great Britain and enemy of Napoleon, had by the Peace of Tilsit become the ally of Napoleon and the enemy of Great Britain, and as Austria and Prussia had been helplessly crushed at Austerlitz and Jena, England was obliged to struggle without any powerful allies against Napoleon's gigantic power; Sweden being then her only ally.

England, alarmed at the united efforts of France and Russia against her commerce, and fearing that Napoleon would compel Denmark to aid in shutting up the Baltic against British vessels, sent a powerful fleet under Admiral Lord Gambier, conveying twenty thousand land troops under the Earl of Cathcart, to Copenhagen for the purpose of obtaining possession of the Danish fleet as a pledge until the close of the war.





BATTLE OF SARAGOSSA.

As the Danish government refused to surrender its fleet, a four days' bombardment of Copenhagen by the British army and navy followed, September 2-5, 1807, reducing a great part of the town to ashes, when the Danish fleet was surrendered. This outrageous and unprovoked attack of a strong power upon a weaker one excited universal indignation throughout Europe. Denmark, greatly exasperated, formed an alliance with Russia and France, and declared war against England and Sweden.

Napoleon was now determined to deprive England of her commerce with Portugal; and, for the accomplishment of this object, he negotiated with the weak and dissolute court of Spain. The infamous Don Manuel Godoy, the "Prince of Peace," who was still Prime Minister of Spain, was promised a principality in Portugal, as his reward for his aid in the unprincipled scheme of the French Emperor. When the Prince-Regent of Portugal refused to renounce his alliance with England and close the Portuguese ports against British vessels, Napoleon published a decree declaring that "the House of Braganza has ceased to reign;" and a French army under Junot was sent to take possession of Portugal. The cowardly royal family of Portugal, instead of offering any resistance to the invaders of their dominions, fled in English vessels to Rio Janeiro, the capital of the Portuguese colony of Brazil, in South America. On the 30th of November, 1807, three days after the Portuguese court had left the shores of their European dominions, the French army occupied Lisbon, the Portuguese capital, without resistance.

The wretched condition of Spain under her weak monarch, Charles IV., and his wicked queen and her unprincipled and ignorant favorite, Godoy, the "Prince of Peace," had made that kingdom contemptible in the eyes of all nations. Godoy, as well as the king and the queen, was unpopular with the Spanish people; and when he proposed to remove the royal family to South America a violent insurrection broke out, which deprived Godoy of his power

and compelled Charles IV. to abdicate his throne in favor of his son Ferdinand, Prince of Asturias, who was immediately hailed as king by the Spanish people. The weak Charles invoked the aid of the French Emperor in his behalf, and declared that his abdication was an involuntary act. By a series of intrigues, Napoleon induced Charles and Ferdinand to refer their disputes to his decision, and enticed them along with Godoy and the queen to Bayonne. Napoleon having the whole royal family of Spain in his power, kept them close prisoners, compelled both Charles and Ferdinand to abdicate, and declared that the dynasty of the Bourbons should no longer reign in Spain. Napoleon named his brother, JOSEPH BONAPARTE, King of Spain; while JOACHIM MURAT, his brother-in-law, received the crown of the Kingdom of Naples.

The Spanish people arose almost unanimously against the usurpation of Napoleon, and resolved that none but their lawful sovereign should reign over them. A fierce insurrection against the French broke out in Madrid, and twelve hundred of Murat's troops were put to death. Murat succeeded in quelling the insurrection, but disgraced his name by a bloody massacre of the insurgents. Provisional Juntas were formed in many of the chief cities of the Spanish kingdom for the purpose of conducting affairs; armies were raised for the defense of the country; and a fierce guerrilla war was commenced against the French invaders.

The Spanish patriots were at first victorious in their struggle against the usurpers of their government. A French fleet at Cadiz, blockaded by a British fleet, was compelled to surrender. Marshal Moncey, with eight thousand French troops, was repulsed in an assault upon Valencia. Saragossa was bravely defended by a Spanish force under the gallant Palafox. Finally on the 20th of July, 1808, the French general Dupont and twenty thousand men were compelled to lay down their arms at Baylen, to the Spaniards under the brave Castanos.

Joseph Bonaparte, who had entered Madrid on that very day, was soon obliged to flee; and the French were driven across the Ebro, into the north-eastern part of the Spanish peninsula.

The Portuguese people also rose in insurrection against the French invaders of their country, and a Provisional Junta was established at Oporto. An English army, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, which had been sent to assist the Portuguese, defeated the French army under Junot at Rolica, August 19, 1808, and at Vimiera, August 21, 1808. On the following day (August 22, 1808) the Convention of Cintra was concluded between Junot and the English general Dalrymple, by which the French agreed to evacuate Portugal on condition of being conveyed to France in English vessels.

The many reverses of the French arms in the Spanish peninsula induced Napoleon to cross the Pyrenees at the head of one hundred and eighty thousand men, in the early part of November, 1808, to recover what had been lost. The Spanish patriots now suffered several disasters. At Espinosa the French under Marshal Victor defeated the Spaniards under Blake; at Burgos, Marshal Soult with French troops overthrew the Spanish Count de Belvedere; and at Tudela, Marshal Lannes with another French force beat the Spaniards under Palafox and Castanos. On the 4th of December, 1808, Napoleon entered Madrid in triumph.

As the British expedition against Copenhagen in September, 1807, caused the Emperor of Russia to declare war against England, November 7, 1807, that monarch entered very decidedly into the Continental System, and demanded that the King of Sweden should enforce the principles of the Armed Neutrality of 1780 and 1800 by which the Baltic was declared a closed sea, in order to prevent British ships from entering. King Gustavus IV. replied that the principles of the Armed Neutrality had been abandoned by the treaty of June 17, 1801; that the surrender of the Danish fleet to England had changed circumstances; and

that the English had effected an entrance into the Baltic through the Great Belt independently of the Sound. The Swedish king's refusal to comply with the demand of the Czar Alexander I. involved him in a ruinous war with Russia.

A Russian army under General Buxhowden marched into Swedish Finland, February 21, 1808. General Buxhowden announced to the inhabitants that the Emperor Alexander I. had considered it necessary to occupy that country in order to have a pledge that the King of Sweden would accept the peace proposals which France had offered him. The Russians soon drove the few Swedish troops into East Bothnia. The Russian forces occupied Helsingfors; and Sweaborg, the bulwark of Finland, hitherto considered impregnable, also surrendered to them, April 6, 1808, after a siege of several days by Vice-Admiral Kronstadt. The Czar Alexander's manifesto had already declared the Grand Duchy of Finland to be annexed to the Russian Empire. The Russian invasion of Finland so incensed King Gustavus IV. of Sweden that he caused M. d'Alopeus, the Russian ambassador at Stockholm, to be arrested.

The imbecile King Christian VII. of Denmark died March 13, 1808, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK VI., who had been regent since 1784. As Denmark had also declared war against Sweden, February 29, 1808, a Swedish army of twenty thousand men under General Armfield attempted to conquer Norway, but was driven back with heavy loss; and the Danes even invaded Sweden.

A Swedish army under Field Marshal Klinspor at Uleaborg began to act on the offensive in the North of Finland; while another Swedish army under General Vege-sack landed at Abo, June 8, 1808. After a campaign of various success the Russians again held possession of Finland. A British force of ten thousand men under Sir John Moore arrived at Gottenburg to aid the Swedes, March 17, 1808; but King Gustavus IV. refused to permit these English auxiliaries to land, as he could not come to

an agreement as to their employment nor even as to the command. The eccentric King of Sweden even ordered Sir John Moore, who had proceeded to Stockholm, to be arrested; but that British general escaped, and returned with his troops to England. Mr. Thornton, the British ambassador at Stockholm, who had remonstrated against the Swedish king's arbitrary action, was recalled.

The Russian fleet under Admiral Chani-koff attempted to burn the Swedish fleet under Admiral Nauckhoff in Virgin Bay, August 18, 1808; but the Swedish fleet was reinforced at Baltic Port by the British squadrons under Sir James Saumarez and Admiral Hood, thus thwarting the Russian design by a blockade of almost two months.

An armistice was concluded between the Russian and Swedish commanders in Finland, in September, 1808; but the Emperor Alexander I. refused to ratify it. Another armistice was then concluded at Olkioki, November 19, 1808, by which the Swedish army was to evacuate Uleaborg and to retreat beyond the Kemi. Near the end of 1808 the British Ministry under Mr. Canning's direction advised the King of Sweden to make peace; but Gustavus IV. obstinately refused to do so, and even demanded additional subsidies for a vigorous prosecution of the war. As the British Cabinet refused to grant any subsidies unconditionally, the King of Sweden was on the point of an open rupture with England; but his indignation soon abated, and he concluded a new convention at Stockholm, March 1, 1809, by which he received a subsidy of three hundred thousand pounds sterling by quarterly installments.

In the meantime, while the armies of Napoleon were engaged in Spain and those of Czar Alexander I. were employed in Finland, these two Emperors, who now controlled the destinies of Continental Europe, held their famous meeting at Erfurt, in Saxony, where the whole splendor of European magnificence was displayed, and where four kings and thirty-four princes of Germany were assembled for the purpose of do-

ing homage to the mighty potentate whose arms seemed invincible. Here the French and Russian Emperors agreed not to interrupt each other in their respective schemes of conquest; thus leaving Napoleon at liberty to do as he pleased in Spain, while Alexander I. was to be unmolested in his aggressions against Sweden in Finland and against Turkey in Moldavia and Wallachia.

The Kingdom of Sweden was now threatened with invasion on every side. The Russians were already approaching the Swedish capital, and the Danes and the Spanish troops under La Romana in Napoleon's service were on the Swedish frontiers. The Swedish army and military affairs were in the most wretched condition, and the heavy taxes could not be raised from the exhausted land; but still King Gustavus IV. obstinately rejected all proposals of peace. His severity in punishing his troops, not only when they had committed faults, but even when they were unsuccessful, had alienated the soldiers, especially the guards, from him.

Accordingly a conspiracy was formed in the Swedish army and in the Swedish capital, under the leadership of Lieutenant-Colonel Adlersparre and Colonel Skioldebrand. Adlersparre and the Swedish army of the West marched against Stockholm; and they had arrived at Orebro when Field Marshal Klinspor, who had been disgraced, advised King Gustavus IV. to change his conduct. As the obstinate king refused to do so, General Adlercreutz arrested him in his palace in the name of the Swedish people, March 13, 1809; and the king's uncle, the Duke of Sudermania, was proclaimed regent. Gustavus IV. was conveyed to Drottningholm, and thence to Gripsholm, where he formally abdicated the Swedish throne by signing a deed to that effect. The regent immediately convened the Swedish Diet, which offered him the crown of Sweden. The regent declared his willingness to accept the crown when the Diet had revised the Swedish constitution. The Diet accordingly revised the constitution by greatly restricting the royal power, declared Gustavus

IV. and all his posterity to have forfeited the Swedish crown, and proclaimed the Duke of Sudermania King of Sweden with the title of CHARLES XIII., June 5, 1809.

As the new king was childless, the Swedish Diet elected Prince Christian Augustus of Holstein-Augustenburg, the commander of the Danish army in Norway, and who had secured the esteem of the Swedes, as the successor of Charles XIII. on the Swedish throne. The dethroned Gustavus IV. and his family were permitted to leave Sweden; and near the end of the year a new fundamental law was published, regulating the order of succession to the Swedish crown.

In the meantime, while the revolution just related was in progress in Sweden, a Russian army of twenty-five thousand men under General Knorring had crossed the Gulf of Bothnia on the ice to the Åland Islands, and took possession of those islands, March 17, 1809; the Swedish troops which had been stationed there retiring to the mainland of Sweden. General Knorring granted an armistice to the Swedes to give them time to make overtures of peace. Upon hearing of this armistice, Count Barclay de Tolly, who had crossed the Gulf of Bothnia on the side of Vasa with another Russian army and occupied Umeå, evacuated West Bothnia and returned to Finland. A third Russian army under Schouvaloff invaded West Bothnia by way of Torneå, and forced the Swedish army under Gripenborg to surrender at Seiwis, March 25, 1809. This event occurred through ignorance, as the news of the armistice granted by General Knorring had not yet reached that remote northern latitude.

The war between Russia and Sweden was ended by the Peace of Fredericksham, September 17, 1809, by which Sweden ceded Finland, East Bothnia and part of West Bothnia to Russia, and joined in the Continental System, but reserved to herself the importation of salt and of such colonial produce as was an absolute necessity. The ceded territory had formed the granary of Sweden and contained a population of nine

hundred thousand, and was therefore an irreparable loss to Sweden, which had less than two million four hundred thousand inhabitants left. Sweden concluded the Peace of Jönköping with Denmark, December 10, 1809, and the Peace of Paris with France, January 6, 1810. By this last treaty Sweden renounced the importation of colonial produce, reserving only to herself the privilege of importing salt as an absolute necessity; as it was only on that condition that she could recover Pomerania, which the French had conquered during the war.

In the meantime, while Russia was at war with Sweden, she was also prosecuting hostilities against Turkey. France lost her influence with the Ottoman Porte when she entered into her alliance with Russia at Tilsit, in July, 1807; and thenceforth England directed the politics of the Divan. The Sultan's Ministers, whom General Sebastiani had won over to the interests of France, found themselves entirely discarded by the new Sultan Mahmoud II.; and Mr. Adair, the new British ambassador at Constantinople, concluded a treaty of peace with Turkey, January 5, 1809, by which the Sublime Porte confirmed to England the advantages which the treaty of 1675 had granted to them, as well as the navigation of the Black Sea, which Mr. Spencer Smith had obtained in 1799.

As soon as the Emperor Alexander I. had returned to St. Petersburg from his splendid meeting with Napoleon at Erfurt he gave orders to open negotiations with the Ottoman Porte. The conference occurred at Jassy, in Moldavia; but it was immediately broken off after the Russian envoys had demanded the cession of Moldavia and Wallachia to Russia and the expulsion of the British ambassador from Constantinople as preliminary conditions. The Russian army under Prince Bagration crossed the Danube and took possession of Ismail, but was defeated in a bloody battle at Tartaritz, near Silistria, September 26, 1809, and thus forced to raise the siege of Silistria. But this event closed the Russo-Turkish campaign of 1809.

The year 1809 was a memorable one in the Spanish peninsula. A British army under Sir John Moore, which was marching to the aid of the Spaniards, was compelled to make a hasty retreat to Corunna, on the north-western coast of Spain, where, while preparing to embark, it was attacked, on the 16th of January, 1809, by the French under Marshal Soult. The French were repulsed and compelled to retreat, but the gallant Sir John Moore fell mortally wounded by a cannon-ball from the enemy while animating his troops. He soon expired, and was buried by torchlight on the ramparts of Corunna. The next day the British abandoned the shores of Spain, and Napoleon seemed master of that country.

Concerning the burial of Sir John Moore, the English historian Sir Archibald Alison says: "Wrapped by his attendants in his military cloak, he was laid in a grave hastily formed on the ramparts of Corunna, where a monument was soon after constructed over his uncoffined remains by the generosity of the French Marshal Ney. Not a word was spoken as the melancholy interment by torchlight took place. Silently they laid him in his grave, while the distant cannon of the battle fired the funeral honors to his memory."

This touching scene has been vividly described by the English poet Charles Wolfe, in one of the most beautiful pieces of poetry in the English language, as follows:

"Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As his corpse to the rampart we hurried;
Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

"We buried him darkly at dead of night,
The sods with our bayonets turning;
By the struggling moonbeam's misty light,
And the lantern dimly burning.

"No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
Not in sheet nor in shroud we wound him;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest
With his martial cloak around him.

"Few and short were the prayers we said,
And we spoke not a word of sorrow,
But we steadfastly gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

"We thought, as we hollowed his narrow bed,
And smoothed down his lonely pillow,
That the foe and the stranger would tread o'er
his head,
And we far away on the billow!

"Lightly they'll talk of the spirit that's gone,
And o'er his cold ashes upbraid him;
But little he'll reck, if they let him sleep on
In the grave where a Briton has laid him.

"But half of our heavy task was done
When the clock struck the hour for retiring;
And we heard the distant and random gun
That the foe was sullenly firing.

"Slowly and sadly we laid him down,
From the field of his fame fresh and gory;
We carved not a line, and we raised not a stone,
But we left him alone with his glory."

On the 20th of February, 1809, the city of Saragossa, almost reduced to a heap of ruins, fell into the hands of the French; and Palafox, the heroic commander of the Spanish force which had garrisoned the city, was conveyed a prisoner to France. This defense was as gallant as that of the ancient Numantians against the Romans. Monks and even women had taken part in the defense, and forty thousand dead bodies lay in the streets when the French entered the city.

The French marshals were everywhere triumphant over the Spaniards during the campaign of 1809. Sebastiani triumphed at Ciudad Real. Marshal Victor defeated Cuesta at Medelin, March 28, 1809. Marshal Suchet defeated General Blake at Belchite, June 16, 1809.

In April, 1809, the French army under Marshal Soult invaded Portugal and occupied Oporto, where he defeated the Portuguese, who left twenty thousand dead upon the field. In the meantime the English army at Lisbon was strongly reinforced, and Sir Arthur Wellesley was assigned the chief command of the British forces in the Spanish peninsula. After driving the French out of Portugal and entering Spain, he was reinforced by a Spanish detachment under General Cuesta.

King Joseph Bonaparte collected all the French troops that he could, and joined

Marshal Victor's army, which was seeking to stay the advance of the English army. In the great and decisive battle of Talavera, July 28, 1809, Sir Arthur Wellesley gained a glorious victory over Marshals Jourdan and Victor and Joseph Bonaparte; the triumphant English losing five thousand men, and the vanquished French seven thousand.

Immediately after his great victory Sir Arthur Wellesley received intelligence that the French forces under Marshals Soult, Ney and Mortier were marching against him; whereupon, pursuing his cautious policy, he promptly fell back to the frontier of Portugal, without being pursued by the French. The French obtained possession of Seville and of all Andalusia and Granada; but Cadiz, the seat of the Grand National Junta, was successfully defended against every attack. The French under Marshal Mortier defeated the Spaniards under Cuesta at Ocaña, November 19, 1809.

Sir Arthur Wellesley's retreat to Portugal left the Spaniards alone to oppose the French; and the Spanish guerrilla parties constantly harassed the French troops, destroying their convoys and magazines and surprising them in their intrenchments. By this guerrilla warfare the Spaniards did infinite damage to the French invaders. The Spanish general La Romana, who had been serving under Napoleon on the Baltic shores, and who had returned home from Denmark in English ships when he heard of his country's rise, brought system and order to the guerrilla warfare. The French victories only increased the hatred of the Spaniards, and the guerrilla war gradually assumed a more sanguinary character. No courage could avail against the assassinations to which the Spaniards were driven by rage and fanaticism. Europe looked with astonishment upon a people who heroically faced death for their nationality and independence, for their ancient manners and religious usages, for their superstitions and customary arrangements.

Austria had always been restive under the humiliating conditions of the Peace of Presburg, and her anxiety was awakened

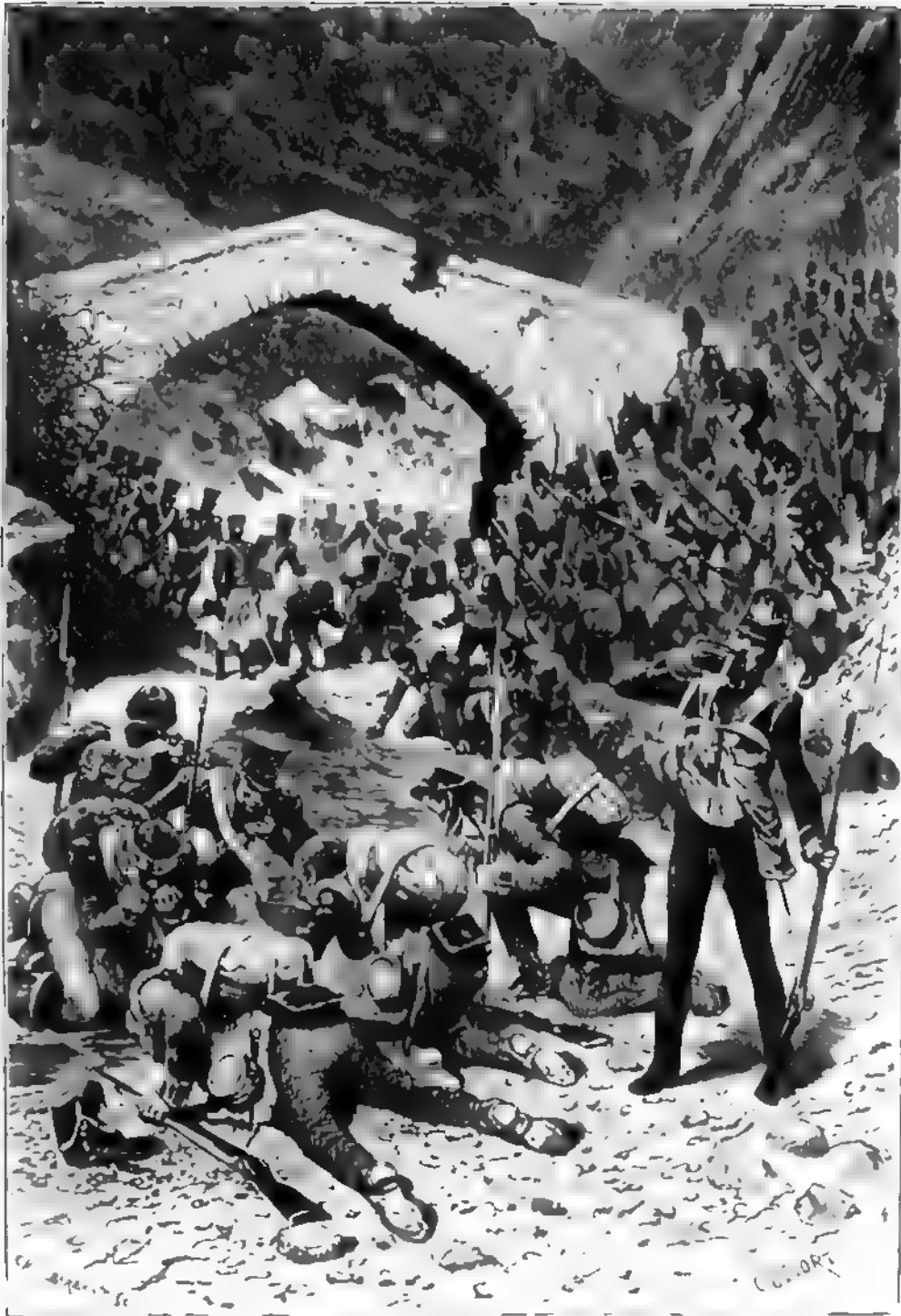
by Napoleon's arbitrary proceedings in Italy and by his increasing influence in Germany. She had been silently mustering her forces in the meantime until their numbers were more than double those of Napoleon. Finally the Emperor Francis, subsidized by British gold to the amount of four millions pounds sterling, and encouraged by the military ardor of his subjects, once more resolved to risk the hazards of war with Napoleon.

The moment seemed favorable when the Emperor of the French was obliged to employ a considerable portion of his forces in Spain to support his brother's precarious throne; when the restrictions upon European commerce were producing universal discontent; and when the deep movement in Northern Germany menaced Napoleon's power in the Fatherland. All these circumstances seemed auspicious for Austria to regain the power which she had lost and to break to pieces the foreign despotism.

The Cabinet of Vienna called out the landstrum, and, by means of vehement proclamations full of promises, sought to arouse enthusiasm and popular feeling in Germany; but the magic of the French Emperor's name was too powerful. The princes of the Confederation of the Rhine reinforced the French army with their brave troops, and the soldiers of South Germany shed their own blood for a foreign despot against their own kinsmen.

At the beginning of April, 1809, large bodies of Austrian troops marched into Bavaria and Italy, and threatened to overwhelm the scattered detachments of Napoleon's army. But the Emperor Francis little appreciated Napoleon's power of swift and decisive action. Upon receiving news at Paris, April 13, 1809, of the invasion of Bavaria by the Archduke Charles, Napoleon hastened to Stuttgart and Karlsruhe, organized the forces of Würtemberg and Baden, and fixed his headquarters at Ingolstadt, April 18, 1809.

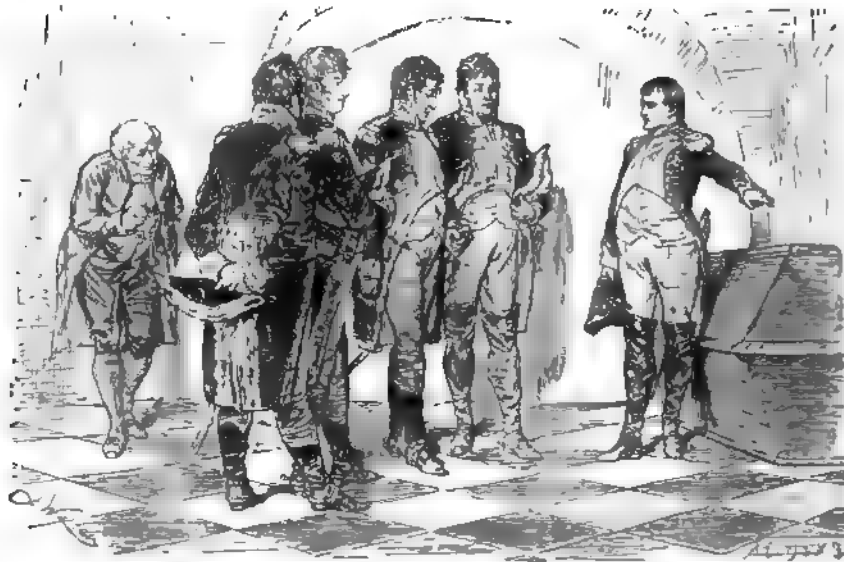
Marching down the Danube with a considerable force, in five days of severe fighting at Abensberg, Eckmühl and Ratisbon.



BATTLE OF TALAVERA.



BATTLE OF WAGRAM.



NAPOLEON AT THE GRAVE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.



BATTLE OF AUSTERLITZ.

April 18-22, 1809, Napoleon totally annihilated the Austrian army under the Archduke Charles, driving the shattered Austrian columns across the Inn and compelling them to retreat toward Bohemia, thus leaving the road open for another invasion of Austria. Napoleon then pursued the Austrian army under General Hiller, whom he defeated at Ebersberg, May 3, 1809, compelling him to fall back to Krems, on the north bank of the Danube, thus leaving the Austrian capital to the conqueror's mercy.

Napoleon entered Vienna a second time, May 13, 1809. The Archduke Charles defended the north bank of the Danube east of Vienna, where the river is crossed by a number of bridges. The Archduke Charles took up a strong position on the Marchfeld, where the fortunes of Austria and Germany had been decided between Rudolf of Hapsburg and King Ottocar of Bohemia more than five centuries before.

When Napoleon attempted to cross the Danube from Lobau, an island in the river, he was repulsed after two days' fighting at Ebersdorf, Aspern and Essling, May 21 and 22, 1809, and was obliged to retreat. During those two terrible days the French left twelve thousand men dead upon the field, while eighteen thousand were wounded and taken prisoners. Among the mortally wounded was the brave Marshal Lannes, who had both legs shot off. Lannes was greatly beloved by Napoleon, who manifested the most intense emotion at his afflicting death. This bloody repulse gave the first shock to the belief in Napoleon's invincibility and increased the confidence of the oppressed nations.

In the meantime the Austrian army in Italy under the Archduke John had defeated the French army under the viceroy Eugene Beauharnais, Napoleon's step-son; but when the Archduke John was informed of the defeat of the Archduke Charles at Abensberg, Eckmühl and Ratisbon he retreated and was defeated near the Piave, May 8, 1809; after which he retreated into the Austrian territories, pursued by Eugene Beauharnais, who captured Gortz and Laybach. The

Archduke John continued his retreat into Hungary, pursued by Eugene Beauharnais, who again defeated him near Raab, June 14, 1809, the anniversary of Napoleon's victories of Marengo and Friedland.

When Napoleon received reinforcements, and was joined by the victorious army of Eugene Beauharnais, he made a second and more successful effort to cross the Danube; and, after an indecisive battle at Enzersdorf, July 5, 1809, he gained a great victory over the Archduke Charles at Wagram, where twelve hundred cannon swept the ranks of the hostile armies—a victory which placed the Austrian Empire at Napoleon's mercy. The Archduke Charles fled into Moravia with his shattered army, and was again defeated at Znaim, July 11, 1809.

The next day, July 12, 1809, an armistice was concluded, and negotiations for peace followed. By the Peace of Schönbrunn, near Vienna, October 14, 1809, Austria was again obliged to relinquish territory containing three million inhabitants; the territories at the head of the Adriatic, under the name of the *Illyrian Provinces*, being ceded to the French Empire; while most of Austrian Poland was divided between the Czar of Russia and the King of Saxony; and Salzburg with its territories was surrendered to Bavaria. The Emperor Francis also renounced his alliance with England, and engaged to join in the Continental System for the destruction of British commerce.

At the beginning of the war between France and Austria just described, the brave inhabitants of the mountainous country of the Tyrol rose in insurrection against the King of Bavaria, under whose dominion their country had been placed by the Peace of Presburg, in 1805. The insurrection was produced by the enticements and promises of Austria and by the stimulating exhortations of the priests, who possessed the greatest influence over the Tyrolese mountaineers.

Relying on the aid of Austria, the Tyrolese seized the familiar rifle, and, like the Spaniards, directed from the mountain heights and gullies the unerring weapon

against the French and the Bavarians, hazarding life and property in defense of the customs of their fathers. Their heroic leader was Andreas Hofer, a publican in the Passeyrthal, a man of great prominence and influence among his countrymen on account of his strength and courage, as well as of his piety, his patriotism and his honorable character. Shrewder and more far-sighted men than Hofer made use of his influence with the people to spread the revolt throughout the whole of the Tyrol. By Hofer's side was Speckbacher, the soul of the revolt.

A frightful war broke out. The Bavarians were driven from the German Tyrol, except the fortress of Kufstein, on their own border, which was besieged by the Tyrolese; and Hofer took possession of Innsbruck in the name of Austria. The Truce of Znaym between France and Austria produced discouragement and irresolution among the Tyrolese insurgents, but did not end the revolt. The Peace of Schönbrunn deprived the Tyrolese of all hopes of assistance from Austria; and the French and the Bavarians, with increased forces, invaded the Tyrol from various directions. Marshal Lefevre gained a victory at Mörgel and captured Schwatz and Innsbruck. Speckbacher and other Tyrolese leaders fled for their lives; but Hofer, who was instigated to take up arms a second time, was discovered in a cave where he had hidden himself with his family for two months, and was taken to Italy, tried by court-martial and shot at Mantua, February 18, 1810. He died like a hero, and was highly revered by his countrymen. The Tyrol was divided into three portions.

During Napoleon's war with Austria just closed, attempts were made in different parts of Germany to cast off the French yoke. In Kurhessen, Colonel Von Dörenberg attempted to overthrow King Jerome Bonaparte of Westphalia by an insurrection; but his failure did not deter the brave Major Von Schill from risking a similar enterprise in Prussia. With a troop of daring volunteers, he hoped to arouse the North of Germany against the foreign despotism.

The people were, however, paralyzed by fear of the French Emperor. Upon being pursued, Schill threw himself into the strongly fortified town of Stralsund, hoping to be able to escape thence by sea to England; but he was killed during an assault on the town, with most of his followers, by the French cavalry. The remainder were made prisoners of war. The captured officers were shot at Wesel and Brunswick, and the privates were condemned to the French galleys.

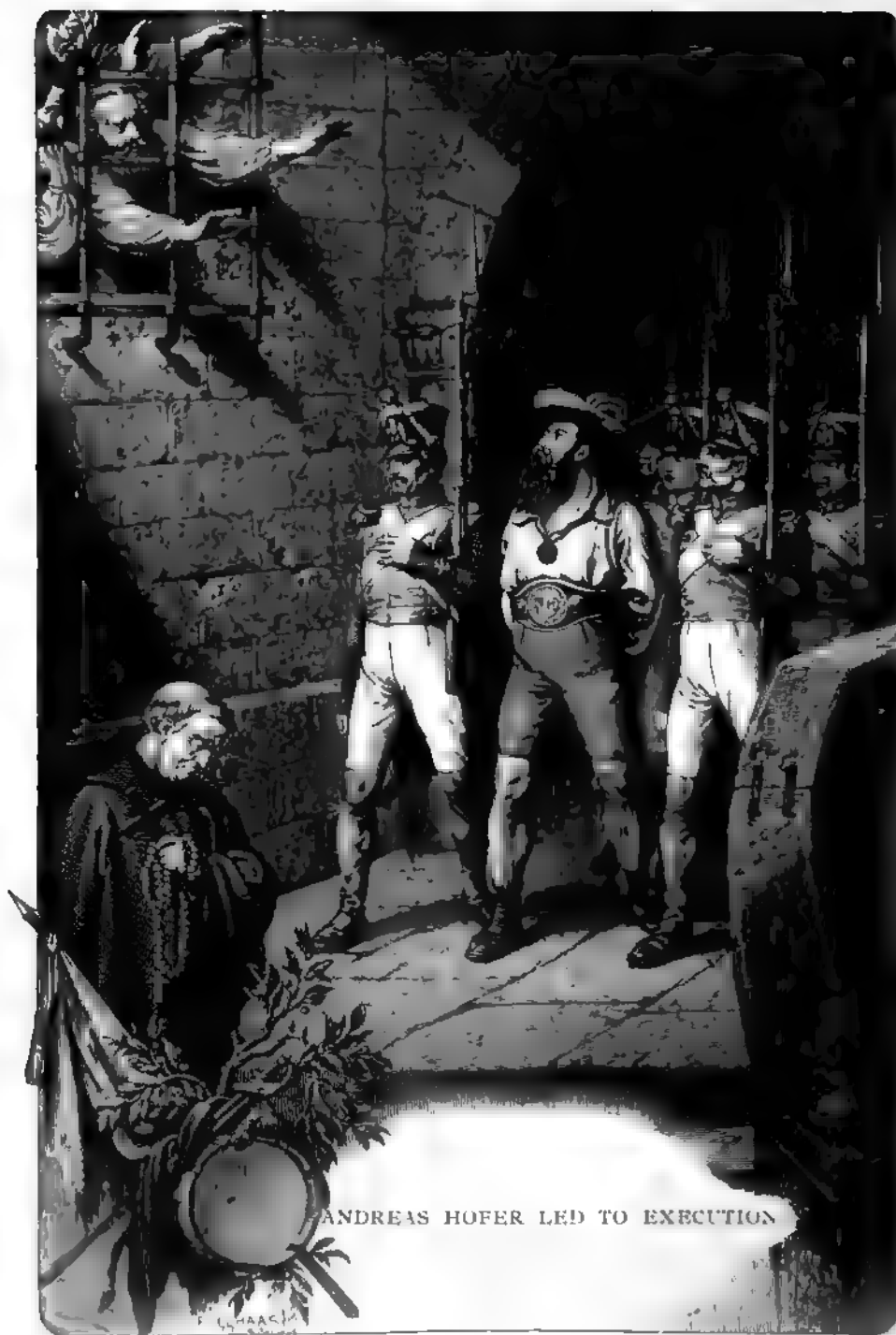
Duke William of Brunswick—the heroic son of old Duke Ferdinand, the veteran Prussian field-marshal—was more fortunate. He had marched to the aid of Austria with his "black band;" but he treated the Truce of Znaym with contempt, because in it he had only been regarded as an Austrian marshal, and not as an independent prince of the Empire. He fought his way bravely through hostile bands and armies to the North Sea, and thence escaped with his followers to England. The intense exasperation of men's minds was evinced by the attempt of a young man of Hamburg named Staps to assassinate Napoleon. He was seized by General Rapp, and confessed his intention, whereupon he was punished with death. Napoleon asked him: "What injury have I done to you?" Staps replied: "None to me personally, but you are the oppressor of my country."

The foolhardy enterprises of Schill and Dörenberg were an evidence of the sentiments prevalent among the German people and of the newly aroused patriotism. These sentiments were fostered and encouraged mainly in Prussia, where patriotically disposed men had assumed the direction of public affairs after the disastrous days of Jena and Tilsit, driving the characterless old Prussian party from the councils of King Frederick William III.

Among the great Prussian statesmen of the time was the Baron Von Stein, who attempted to elevate the citizen and peasant class by introducing a liberal municipal government, rendering the possession of land attainable by all, and restricting the



ANDREAS HOFER MARSHALLING THE TYROLEANS.



ANDREAS HOFER LED TO EXECUTION

class privileges of the Middle Ages. Scharnhorst, the new Minister of War, completely reorganized and revolutionized the Prussian army, superseding the employment of mercenary troops by the universal requirement to bear arms, thus making every able-bodied Prussian a soldier, while the feelings of honor were aroused among the privates by making the rank of military officer attainable by all, and by abolishing degrading punishments.

Although King Frederick William III. was soon obliged to dismiss his patriotic Ministers when Napoleon's mandate outlawed the Baron Von Stein and forced him to seek refuge in Russia, the works of these statesmen remained, and constituted the groundwork of a system of government which was based upon the equality of all Prussian subjects before the law. Stein's successor, the astute Chancellor Von Hardenberg, carried out the same policy; and the *Tugendbund*, which was joined by some of the noblest men in the kingdom, aroused and encouraged patriotism and love of freedom among the people and ardent youth of Prussia.

In his pride and glory Napoleon refused to recognize any bonds that could limit his ambition. The priests were the instigators of the hatred and fanatical fury of the Spaniards toward the French; but Napoleon refused to learn from this circumstance what power the religion which he rejected, and its venerable usages, exercised over the minds of men. Napoleon's arbitrary and imperious disposition was clearly shown in his treatment toward Pope Pius VII., with whom a quarrel had in the meantime arisen.

When the Pope refused to lay an embargo on British vessels in the ports of the States of the Church, and to form an offensive and defensive alliance with France, Napoleon inflicted a succession of injuries upon His Holiness, and annexed a part of the Pope's dominions to the French Empire. This did not, however, subdue the resolution of the inflexible Pius VII., but caused him to side with Austria during her war with Napoleon in 1809. Thereupon Napoleon issued a de-

cree at Schönbrunn, May 27, 1809, declaring the Pope's temporal power at an end, only allowing the Head of the Church a liberal endowment and the possession of the Vatican, where he might reign as the spiritual head of Christendom without distraction by worldly interests. His Holiness, intensely exasperated, then fulminated an excommunication against the French Emperor, June 16, 1809, and shut himself up in the Quirinal with his Swiss guards; whereupon his palace was surrounded at midnight by French troops, July 6, 1809, and he was conveyed a prisoner to France, while his cardinals were banished from Rome; and the States of the Church were annexed to the French Empire, of which Rome was declared to be the second city.

Pius VII. remained a prisoner in France until the beginning of 1814, residing first at Grenoble, and finally at Fontainebleau. As he obstinately refused to fill the vacant bishoprics or to arrange any ecclesiastical affairs while he was in captivity and deprived of his council of cardinals, Napoleon again had recourse to arbitrary and despotic measures. But, at length, in an unguarded moment, the Pope suffered himself to be persuaded to an arrangement curtailing his authority.

The year 1809 was disastrous for the French at sea. The captain of a British vessel, and Marques, a Portuguese colonel, took possession of the island of Cayenne and French Guiana, in South America, January 12, 1809. A British expedition under Rear-Admiral Cochrane and Lieutenant-General Beckwith took Martinique by capitulation, February 12, 1809. A British fleet under Lords Gambier and Cochrane destroyed a French fleet under Vice-Admirals Villamez and L'Allemand in Aix Roads, on the south-eastern coast of France, by means of Congreve rockets, April 11, 1809. The English took the French fort on the Senegal, in Western Africa, in June, 1809. A Spanish force from the island of Porto Rico, under the British General Carmichael, drove the French from St. Domingo, July 7, 1809. A British fleet under Lord Col-

lingwood destroyed a French squadron in the Bay of Rosas, on the north-eastern coast of Spain. A British land and naval armament under Lord Collingwood and General Oswald took possession of the Ionian Isles, October 8, 1809. A British fleet under Sir James Saumarez captured a Russian convoy in the Baltic.

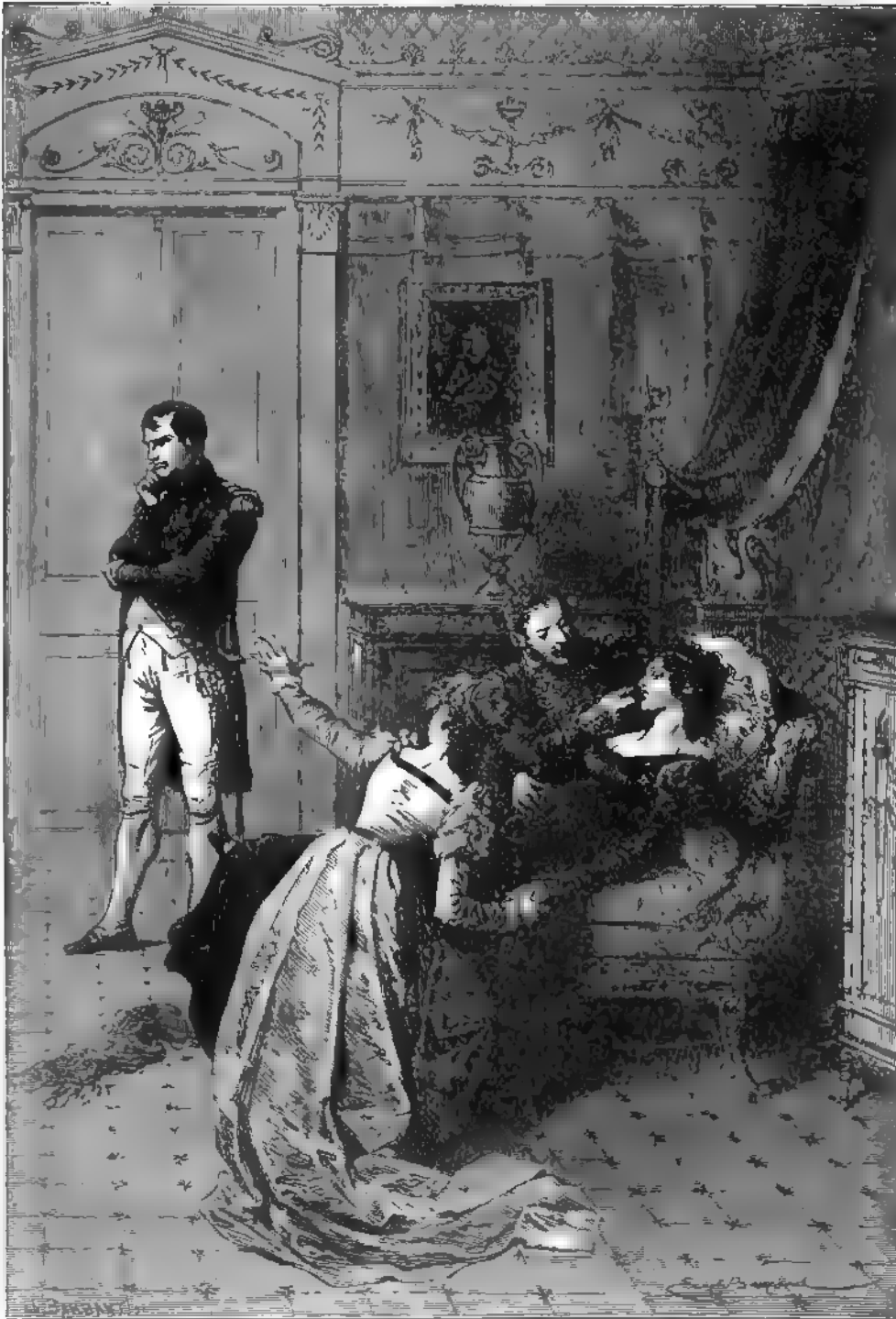
The most important British expedition in 1809 was that to the coast of Holland to create a diversion in favor of Austria during her war with Napoleon in that year. This expedition consisted of a fleet under Sir Richard Strachan, carrying forty thousand land troops commanded by the Earl of Chatham, the elder brother of the second William Pitt. This expedition was sent to the province of Zealand, in Holland, for the purpose of destroying the shipping, dockyards and arsenals at Antwerp and Flushing, and to occupy the island of Walcheren. The expedition landed on that island July 30, 1809, and took the fortress of Flushing after a siege of fifteen days. But the unhealthiness of the climate forced the British to evacuate these acquisitions after the loss of about twenty thousand lives; and the Earl of Chatham found it impossible to carry out the objects of the expedition, the destruction of the French fleet in the Scheldt and the occupation of Antwerp, because of the activity of Marshal Bernadotte, who had formed an army of thirty-five thousand men there. The entire expedition was badly conducted, as it had not arrived on the island of Walcheren until Austria had been irretrievably ruined at Wagram; and near the close of the year, after a four months' occupation of the island of Walcheren, and after destroying the fortress of Flushing, which the English were unable to retain, the expedition returned to England.

This disastrous expedition led to the fall of the Ministry of the Duke of Portland. George Canning, the young and able Secretary of Foreign Affairs, ascribed the failure to the incompetence of Lord Castlereagh, an Irish peer, who, after taking the leading part in bringing about the Parliamentary Union of Great Britain and Ireland, had

been raised by the Duke of Portland to the post of Secretary of War. The quarrel between these two Ministers ended in a duel between them and in the resignation of their offices, in September, 1809. The Duke of Portland also resigned; and a new Ministry was formed, in which the Tory members of the preceding Ministry had the chief places, and which was headed by Spencer Perceval, a man of industry but of the narrowest kind of mediocrity. The Marquis Wellesley, a brother of Sir Arthur Wellesley, the British commander in the Spanish peninsula, succeeded Canning as Secretary of Foreign Affairs. Though lacking most of the higher qualities of statesmanship, the Perceval Ministry was resolute in its determination to continue the war against Napoleon. Despair seemed to have taken possession of the English nation because of the defeat of Austria and the failure of the Walcheren expedition, and because of Napoleon's apparent invincibility.

After the Peace of Schönbrunn, Napoleon stood at the highest pinnacle of his power and greatness. The only thing that caused him any anxiety was the reflection that he had no heir, and for reasons of state he resolved to ally himself with one of the oldest and most illustrious of the royal families of Europe. He accordingly obtained a divorce from Josephine, December 15, 1809, on the ground of some informality in their nuptials. Josephine, to whom Napoleon was tenderly attached, reluctantly gave her consent to what was a state necessity; and the divorce was ratified by the civil and ecclesiastical authorities at Paris.

Napoleon then demanded the hand of the Archduchess Maria Louisa, the daughter of the Emperor Francis of Austria, in marriage. However averse the Austrian Emperor may have been to such a match, he dared not refuse the demand of the mighty potentate who had crushed his armies at Austerlitz and Wagram; and the nuptials were celebrated with great pomp at Vienna, March 11, 1810, and at Paris, April 2, 1810. Five queens supported the imperial bride's train, and an unexampled magnificence was dis-



NAPOLEON ANNOUNCING TO JOSEPHINE HIS INTENTION TO DIVORCE HER.

played; but a fire during the ball that Schwarzenberg, the Austrian ambassador at Paris, gave in honor of the newly married pair, and in which his sister perished in the flames, was considered an evil omen.

Napoleon's marriage with Maria Louisa seemed to strengthen his power; but it was really the cause of his fall, as the other powers of Europe feared that, secured by the Austrian alliance, he would attempt to bring all Europe under his sway. So this imperial marriage instead of being the security of Napoleon's power, was the turning point in his wonderful career—the moment when the star of the "Man of Destiny" had reached its zenith and commenced its decline.

By this marriage with a Hapsburg princess, the Corsican who by the mere force of his genius had raised himself from the condition of an unknown and friendless youth, from a penniless charity student at Brienne, to be the master of all the hereditary crowned heads of Europe and to control the destinies of a continent—this "Man of Destiny" had nothing to gain by intermarriage with an imperial family which had nothing but antiquity to recommend it; while the French people looked upon him as having abjured the principle on which his greatness was based.

By this imperial marriage with the princess of a family which based its claims on the principle of legitimacy and divine right, Napoleon practically renounced his character of a self-raised monarch who attained his position through the circumstances of a mighty political revolution, and who was fighting against all the old and legitimate royal and imperial courts of Europe; thus placing himself in an awkward position relative to Austria, which he should either have crushed after his victory at Wagram, or to have restored to her former dignity and possessions after his marriage with the Austrian archduchess.

While Napoleon did not deprive Austria of either the power or the desire to retain her enmity toward him, he changed the character of his Empire and separated it

from the popular interests. He sought to grace his court with old noble families, and exerted himself to his utmost to blend the old nobility of France with that which he had created, as he had already done with the old and new dynasties. Austerlitz had confirmed the *democratic* empire, but Wagram was to establish the *noble* empire.

Pride and ambition drove Napoleon from one act of violence to another; and there was no end to the alliances, separations and interchanges of lands and territories. What this despot created one day he destroyed the next, and him whom he made a great man one year he humbled in the next. The blockade of the Continent of Europe became more rigid daily, to the utter despair of the merchants and traders.

The just and liberal policy of Louis Bonaparte, King of Holland, especially in his resistance to the Continental System in favor of the commercial interests of his subjects, intensely displeased his imperial brother. When Louis relaxed the severity of the blockade of the ports of his dominions, and connived at the importations of English goods, he was treated so unkindly and unworthily by Napoleon that he ceded to him Dutch Brabant, Zealand and a part of Guelders; and by a treaty signed at Paris, March 16, 1810, a force of twelve thousand Dutch and six thousand French troops were to be stationed at the mouths of all the rivers of Holland to protect the French revenue officers who were superintending the execution of the French Emperor's orders. But Louis Bonaparte did not purchase the independence of his kingdom by this great sacrifice; and Napoleon sent a French army to occupy all Holland, under the pretext that the French officials had received certain insults from the exasperated Dutch people. Thereupon Louis Bonaparte abdicated the throne of Holland in favor of his son, July 3, 1810, and retired into Austria; but Napoleon, indignant at an act on which he had not been consulted, annexed the Kingdom of Holland to the French Empire by a decree issued at Rambouillet, July 9, 1810.

The Swiss Canton of Valais, which had

formed an independent republic since 1802, was annexed to the French Empire by a decree from Napoleon, November 12, 1810, in order to secure the road over the Simplon in the undisturbed possession of France. The Electorate of Hanover had already been annexed to Jerome Bonaparte's Kingdom of Westphalia. The most important of all Napoleon's usurpations, and that which was instrumental in leading to his downfall, was the annexation of the Hanse towns—Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck—along with the Duchies of Oldenburg and Lauenburg, the Grand Duchy of Berg and other territories in Northern Germany, to the French Empire by a decree of the French Senate, December 13, 1810, at Napoleon's demand as stated in a message which he addressed to that pliant and subservient body. By this annexation the French Empire extended along the entire southern coast of the North Sea, and numbered one hundred and thirty Departments. Hamburg was made the capital of the French territory in North Germany, and the cruel Marshal Davoust was assigned to the administration of French law therein.

The Prince Royal of Sweden—Prince Christian Augustus of Holstein-Augustenburg—died suddenly in the spring of 1810; whereupon the Swedish Diet assembled at Orebro, and elected the French marshal Jean Baptiste Julius Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo, to the dignity of Crown Prince of Sweden, to succeed as king on the death of the old and childless Charles XIII. This election was unanimous; but only one hundred and forty of the Swedish nobility were present at the Diet, out of more than a thousand who had the right to appear. Bernadotte accepted so honorable an offer, which had been tendered him because of his kind treatment of the Swedish troops during Napoleon's war with Prussia. Napoleon very reluctantly yielded his assent to this choice of the Swedish Diet. Upon his arrival in Sweden, Bernadotte professed the Lutheran faith, as his ancestors in France had done in the past; after which King Charles XIII. adopted him as his

heir, and he was proclaimed Crown Prince of Sweden at Stockholm under the name of Charles John, November 5, 1810. Twelve days later Sweden declared war against Great Britain, November 19, 1810.

The year 1810, which witnessed the zenith of Napoleon's greatness in Europe, was also signalized by the conquest of the remaining foreign possessions of France by the British. A British armament under Admiral Cochrane and General Beckwith attacked and captured the island of Guadaloupe, in the West Indies. A British expedition under Lord Minto, then Governor-General of British India, and a thousand English troops from the Cape of Good Hope, reduced the French Isle of Bourbon, in the Indian Ocean, July 7, 1810, and that of the Mauritius some months later.

The war was still raging in the Spanish peninsula; and Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had been created Earl of Wellington as a reward for his great victory at Talavera the previous year, was in chief command of the English, Spanish and Portuguese armies. Granada, Malaga and Seville were occupied by the French; but Cadiz, then the seat of the Grand National Junta, was secured against every attack. The Spaniards were compelled to surrender the strong fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo, in the extreme West of Spain, to the French army under Marshal Massena, Prince of Essling, July 10, 1810; but when Massena marched on Lisbon he was beaten by the English and Portuguese forces under Lord Wellington at Basaco, September 27, 1810. Wellington, acting on the defensive, then retreated to the strongly fortified lines of Torres Vedras, which covered Lisbon, December, 1810. Massena, after wasting some time in useless assaults upon those impregnable lines, was at length obliged to retrace his steps.

The Russo-Turkish campaign of 1810 was more decisive than the previous campaigns in that quarter during that war. The Russian commander-in-chief was General Kamenskoi. His younger brother and General Markoff took Bazardjik, June 4, 1810. The Russian commander-in-chief and Count Lan-

geron captured Silistria, June 11, 1810, thus opening the way to Shumla, where the Grand Vizier, Yussuf Pasha, occupied a strong position. A Russian force under General Sabanief, defeated a Turkish detachment near Rasgrad, June 14, 1810, compelling it to surrender. The Grand Vizier asked for an armistice; but, as the Russians demanded the cession of Moldavia and Wallachia and the payment of a war indemnity of twenty million piasters, the negotiations failed, the Grand Vizier having rejected the Russian conditions at the British ambassador's instigation. The elder Kamenskoi was repulsed in an attack upon the Grand Vizier's intrenchments at Shumla, June 23, 1810, and was afterward repulsed in an assault on Rutschuk, while his brother was obliged to retreat from Kargali Dere, August 15, 1810. Forty thousand Turks under Mukhtar Pasha marched to the relief of Rutschuk, but were defeated in their intrenchments at Batine, September 7, 1810. Several days later the Russians under Count St. Priest took Sistova with the whole Turkish fleet. Rutschuk and Guirgevo surrendered to the Russians, September 27, 1810, and Nicopolis and Widin soon afterward; thus leaving the Russians in possession of the whole north bank of the Danube at the end of the campaign. The Servians and Russians captured the remaining fortresses of Servia from the Turks.

The death of the Princess Amelia, the youngest and favorite child of George III., in November, 1810, cast a gloom over the English royal family, and so affected the mind of His Majesty that he sank into a state of incurable insanity early in 1811, in which condition he remained during the last nine years of his life, during which he was also totally blind. In consequence of this calamity, the Prince of Wales was declared Prince Regent by act of Parliament. The prince was an ardent Whig in politics, and desired to have Spencer Perceval's Tory Ministry replaced by a Whig Cabinet.

The future of Napoleon's great Empire seemed to be secured by the birth of a son, March 20, 1811, who received the pompous

title of *King of Rome*; but the great Emperor's violence and ambition was hurrying on the crisis which led to his fall. His oppressions in North Germany had established military despotism in that quarter. The last vestiges of freedom were suppressed by a formidable state-police, which threatened every suspected person with persecution and imprisonment. The place of popular rights was usurped by arbitrariness, passion and despotism. Friendly states were burdened with restrictions on trade, oppressive taxation and military conscriptions; while the hostile states suffered the calamities of war, military exactions and the quarterings of troops.

The Peninsular War was prosecuted with vigor on both sides throughout the year 1811, and the French forces were greatly harassed by the Spanish guerrilla parties. After a month's inaction, the French army under Marshal Massena fell back into Spain, closely pursued by Lord Wellington; but the French marshal conducted his retreat with such signal ability that the English general could gain no decided advantage over him. The main British and Portuguese army under Lord Wellington laid siege to Almeida, while a British detachment under Marshal Beresford besieged Badajoz. Massena advanced to the relief of Almeida, but was defeated with the loss of three thousand men by Marshal Beresford at Fuentes d'Onoro, May 5, 1811. Massena retreated to Salamanca, where he was soon relieved of his command by Marshal Marmont, Duke of Ragusa. The French army under Marshal Soult, Duke of Dalmatia, now advanced from Seville to the relief of Badajoz, but was repulsed in an attack on the allied English, Spanish and Portuguese army under Marshal Beresford at Albuera, May 16, 1811, the French losing eight thousand men, and the allies seven thousand. Upon the advance of a strong reinforcement from Salamanca for Soult's army, Beresford retreated into Portugal. In the South-west of Spain the English under General Graham defeated the French at Barossa. The French under Marshal Suchet took Tortosa, January

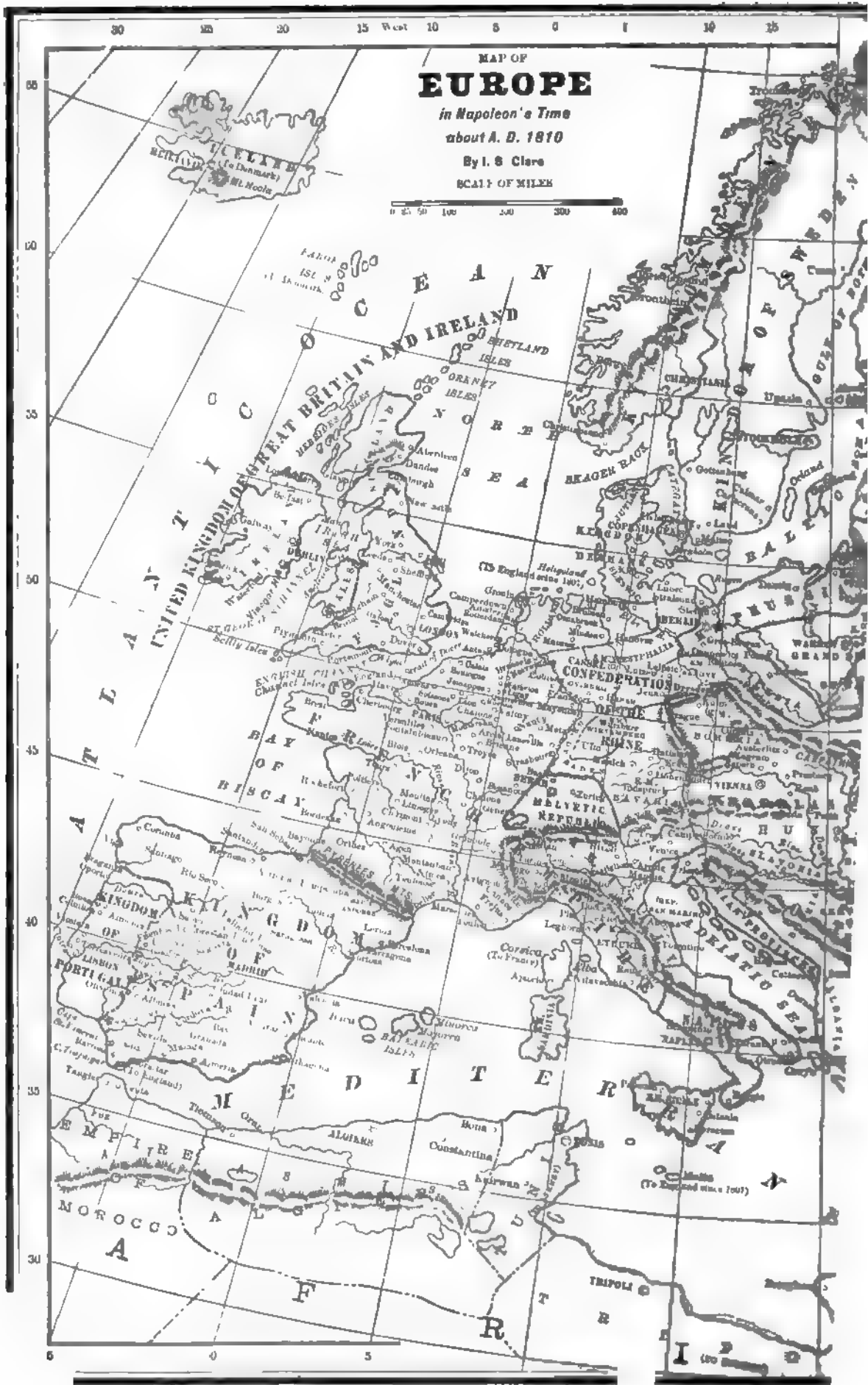
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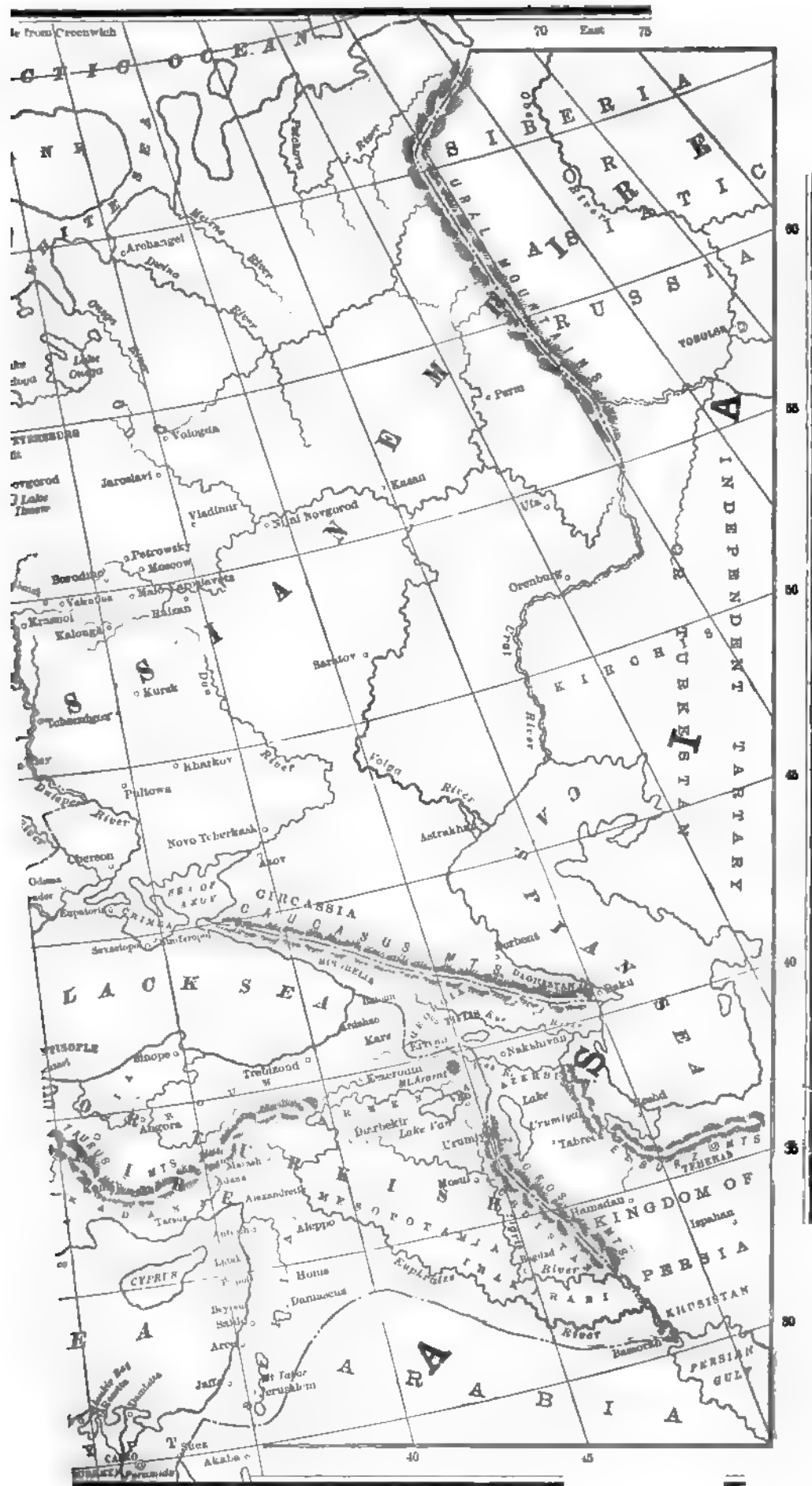
SCALE OF MILES

SCALE OF MILES

SCALE OF MILES

Age Group	Number of People
0	400
10	350
20	300
30	250
40	200
50	150
60	100
70	50
80	20
90	10
100	5







THE STORMING OF MONTSERRAT.



RETREAT OF MASSENA AFTER THE BATTLE OF CIUDAD RODRIGO.

1, 1811; Tarragona, June 28, 1811; Montserrat, August 19, 1811. Suchet gained a victory over General Blake at Murviedro, the ancient Saguntum, October 25, 1811.

In the campaign of 1811 the Russians acted on the defensive against the Turks. The Russian General Kutusoff caused Silistria to be demolished. The Grand Vizier Yussuf Pasha was succeeded by Achmet Aga, who sent for a reinforcement of thirty-five thousand men, mainly cavalry, supported by a formidable artillery served by French officers. Achmet Aga marched against Kutusoff, and eight thousand Russians were driven back to their intrenchments, July 4, 1811. Two days later the new Grand Vizier attacked the Russian intrenchments and dislodged the troops, who threw themselves into Rutschuk. The Grand Vizier was repulsed in three assaults in one day upon the fortress of Rutschuk, July 9, 1811. The next day the Russians evacuated Rutschuk and crossed the Danube, but the Turks entered the town and prevented them from carrying off their artillery and ammunition. The Turks took possession of the islands in the Danube, where they constructed bridges, by means of which they made frequent incursions into Wallachia. Fifteen thousand Turks under Ismail Bey took post on the south side of the Danube, and the Grand Vizier crossed the river with the main body of the Turkish army, August 3, 1811. But when Kutusoff was reinforced by fifty thousand men under General Ouwaroff, he sent a detachment under General Markoff, who crossed to the south side of the Danube, marched hastily against the Turkish reserve before Rutschuk, seized the Turkish camp, and thus cut off the Grand Vizier's retreat. The Grand Vizier entered Rutschuk in a small bark, leaving his army in Wallachia under the command of Seraskier Tchaban-Oglou, who was blockaded at Slobosia by Kutusoff, and, after his army was reduced to twenty-five thousand men, was obliged to capitulate, December 8, 1811.

In the meantime the civil war in Egypt continued to rage between the Turks and

the Mamelukes; and in 1811 Mehemet Ali, the powerful Pasha of Egypt, caused the Mameluke chiefs to be treacherously assassinated at an entertainment to which he had invited them for the purpose. The British navy was complete mistress of the seas, and took the island of Java, in the East Indies, from the Dutch in 1811.

In March, 1812, Spencer Perceval, Prime Minister of Great Britain, was assassinated in the lobby of the House of Commons by a merchant named Bellingham, who imagined that the government had neglected his just claims. The assassin was tried at the Old Bailey and was executed, but he manifested little remorse for the horrid deed which he had committed. This crime led to the fall of the Tory Ministry, and the Prince Regent sought to recall the Whigs to power, but he failed in the effort, and the old Tory Ministry was restored to power under the guidance of the Earl of Liverpool, a man of no great abilities, but temperate, well-informed, and endowed with a singular gift of holding discordant colleagues together. The Ministry of the Earl of Liverpool remained in office for fifteen years, 1812-1827.

British aggressions upon neutral commerce, and the enforcement of the English "right of search" against American vessels, led to a war between Great Britain and the United States, in June, 1812—a war which lasted two and a half years, and which will be fully described in the next section of this work relating to United States history.

The events of the Peninsular War during 1812 were generally unfavorable to the French arms. The last important French victory in the Spanish peninsula was the capture of the city of Valencia, which surrendered to Marshal Suchet, January 9, 1812. Lord Wellington recaptured Ciudad Rodrigo, January 19, 1812, and also took Badajoz by storm, April 6, 1812. Wellington then advanced into the interior of Spain, and gained a glorious victory over the French army under Marshal Marmont at Salamanca, July 22, 1812, the French losing eight thousand killed and wounded and

seven thousand prisoners. The victorious British general then marched on Madrid, whereupon King Joseph Bonaparte fled from that city, and the next day the capital of Spain was in the possession of the British army. Wellington then marched into the North of Spain and besieged Burgos; but the concentration of the French forces in the Spanish peninsula caused him to raise the siege, October 21, 1812, and to retreat to Ciudad Rodrigo, pursued by a French army of eighty thousand men under Marshal Soult, who was unable to profit by his superior numbers. Upon reaching Ciudad Rodrigo, Lord Wellington went into winter quarters. King Joseph Bonaparte returned to Madrid, but his authority ceased south of his capital, Seville and Valladolid having been recovered by the English.

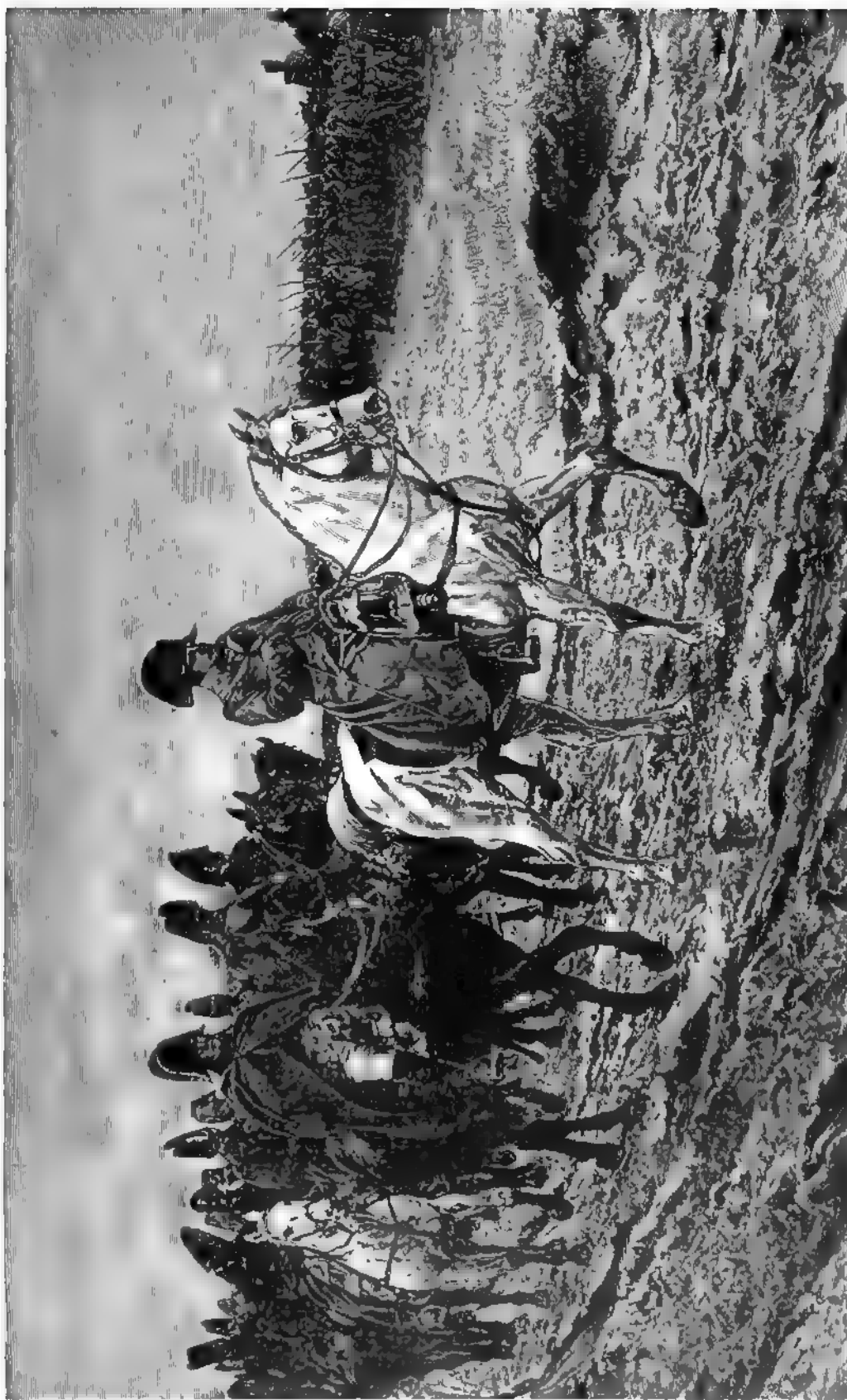
We have already seen that, by the Peace of Tilsit, in 1807, the French and Russian Emperors became friends and allies, and that they united in the maritime war against England. It soon became evident that this friendship could not be permanent, and the unconcern which Alexander exhibited in the war against Austria in 1809 increased the growing coldness between him and Napoleon. From the moment of Napoleon's alliance with the House of Hapsburg, Alexander perceived that it would be impossible to avoid hostilities with Napoleon; and in 1811 the diplomacy between the French and Russian Cabinets began to assume a most angry character. The measures of Napoleon for destroying the trade of Great Britain, and the closing of the Russian ports against British vessels, had inflicted great injury upon Russian commerce. The complaints of the Russian merchants induced Alexander to open the ports of his dominions to British vessels upon certain conditions, and a heavy tariff was laid upon French goods. These proceedings provoked the anger of the French Emperor. The aggrandizement of Napoleon in Central Europe, and the annexation of the possessions of the Duke of Oldenburg, a near relative of Alexander, to the French Empire, destroyed the last tie of friendship between the

two Emperors; and in the spring of 1812 both began to prepare earnestly for war.

The threatened establishment of a French maritime arsenal at Lübeck, the continued occupation of the Prussian fortresses by French garrisons and the concentration of French troops between the Oder and the Vistula, along with the attempt to unite Denmark, Sweden and the Grand Duchy of Warsaw into a Northern Confederation under Napoleon's protection—all indicated an intention of violating the Treaty of Tilsit whenever it should suit Napoleon's convenience to dispense with it. The Czar Alexander I. prepared for resistance by stationing an army of ninety thousand men upon the western Russian frontiers.

In the meantime an armistice had been concluded between Russia and Turkey, and negotiations for peace had been opened at Bucharest, but for months the Ottoman Porte refused to make the slightest cession of territory. Finally the mediation of Great Britain overcame the Porte's obstinacy; and the Peace of Bucharest was signed May 28, 1812, by which Turkey ceded the province of Bessarabia and one-third of Moldavia, with the towns of Ismail and Kilia and the fortresses of Kotzim and Bender, to Russia, and granted an amnesty to the Servians.

Russia's war with the French Emperor was hastened by the influence of Sweden. Bernadotte, as Crown Prince of Sweden, disapproved of Napoleon's Continental System, which was ruining Swedish commerce; and the admission of English goods into Pomerania soon led to hostilities between France and Sweden. The French seized Swedish vessels in German harbors and sent their crews to Antwerp in irons. The cruel Marshal Davoust, the French commander in Northern Germany, occupied Pomerania, imprisoned the Swedish officials at Hamburg, and appointed Frenchmen in their places. Bernadotte, who ruled Sweden during the illness of King Charles XIII., appealed to the Czar of Russia for aid; and, in answer to this appeal, the Czar Alexander I. formed alliances with Sweden and England.



ADVANCE OF NAPOLEON'S GRAND ARMY IN RUSSIA

Napoleon's great object in his war against Russia was to destroy that great power and to unite all Europe into one universal empire under his own dominion. Said he: "I must make one nation out of all the European states, and Paris must be the capital of the world. There must be all over Europe but one legislative code, one court of appeal, one currency, one standard of weights and measures."

On the 16th of May, 1812, Napoleon held a meeting with the Emperor of Austria, the Kings of Prussia, Naples, Westphalia and Würtemberg, and the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine, at Dresden. After this grand assemblage of princes had lasted ten days, Napoleon went to assume the command of the *Grand Army*, which he had assembled in Poland for the invasion of Russia. Napoleon had concluded a treaty with Austria, by which that power agreed to furnish him with thirty thousand men, under the command of Prince Schwarzenberg; and Prussia, by a similar treaty, agreed to furnish him with twenty thousand men. The *Grand Army* now numbered more than five hundred thousand men, and was composed of French, Austrians, Prussians, Germans, Italians and Poles. Of this immense host eighty thousand were cavalry. The whole number of horses belonging to the army amounted to almost one hundred and ninety thousand. The Russian forces, under Barclay de Tolly, Prince Bagration and other generals, which were assembled in Poland and the western Russian provinces, amounted to three hundred thousand men.

On the 22d of June, 1812, Napoleon issued a declaration of war against Russia; and on the 24th he crossed the Niemen and invaded the Russian dominions. The Russians, in accordance with the plan of their generals, avoided battles, retreated before the advancing French forces, and laid waste the country through which they passed, so that the French army might find no subsistence from it. Napoleon, with the main body of the *Grand Army*, pursued the retreating Russians, and reached Wilna on

the 28th, where he remained until the middle of August, when he continued his advance toward Moscow in pursuit of the retreating Russians. Already the effects of the destructive policy of the Russians began to be felt in the French army; as twenty-five thousand sick and dying men filled the hospitals, and ten thousand dead horses strewed the road to Wilna, while one hundred and twenty-five pieces of artillery had been abandoned.

At Smolensk, on the 17th of August, 1812, thirty thousand Russians made a stand against the French. Three furious assaults upon this strongly fortified town were repulsed by the Russians; but during the night the inhabitants set fire to the town, which was soon reduced to ashes, and fled with the army.

The Russians continued to retreat toward Moscow, pursued by the French. The mode of warfare pursued by the Russian general, Barclay de Tolly, was not approved by his soldiers, who were anxious for a battle with the invaders of their country. For this reason, the Emperor Alexander removed Barclay de Tolly, and appointed General Kutusoff, who had distinguished himself in the war with Turkey which had just closed, to the chief command of the Russian army.

On the 7th of September, 1812, Kutusoff risked a battle with Napoleon at Borodino, on the Moskwa, in the hope of saving Moscow. In the morning when this sanguinary engagement began, each army numbered one hundred and thirty thousand men. The battle had commenced at six o'clock in the morning, and when night put an end to its horrors ninety thousand men lay dead and wounded on the field. The result of the battle was that the Russians were obliged to resume their retreat, and the French were enabled to continue their advance in the direction of Moscow.

At length, on the 14th of September, 1812, the French army came in sight of the great city of Moscow, and beheld its lofty steeples and copper domes glittering in the sun. When the city burst upon his gaze, Napoleon exclaimed: "Behold! yonder is the cel-



NAPOLÉON IN DRESDEN.



NAPOLEON'S RETREAT FROM MOSCOW.

ebreated city of the Czars!" The French troops rushed forward and entered Moscow on the same day, but they were astonished to find it deserted by its three hundred thousand inhabitants. Only a few of the rabble remained in the city. Napoleon took up his residence in the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the Czars.

Before Moscow had been abandoned by its inhabitants, Count Rostopschin, the Russian governor, had taken measures to burn the city after the French should enter. Accordingly, on the night of the 16th of September, 1812, a vast fire was seen to emanate from the eastern part of the city. Fires soon broke out in all quarters of the city, and in a few hours the holy city of the Russians was wrapt in flames. The city had been set on fire by the twenty thousand convicts whom Rostopschin, before leaving the city, had liberated for the purpose. No means were at hand for extinguishing the fire; as the fountains had been destroyed, the fire-engines carried off and the water-pipes cut, before the inhabitants had left the city. For four days the fire continued to rage unabated, reducing the greater part of the city to ashes. When the fire had reached the Kremlin, Napoleon abandoned that edifice, and took up his abode in the imperial castle of Petrowski, three miles from the city. He returned on the 19th, and took up his quarters in that part of the Kremlin which had escaped the ravages of the fire.

The destruction of Moscow deprived the French army of winter-quarters; the Russian armies, which were now vastly superior to the French, threatened to cut off all communication with France; and the Russian Emperor rejected all Napoleon's proposals for peace. In this critical situation Napoleon found himself obliged to order a retreat to Poland; and on the 19th of October, 1812, Moscow was evacuated by the French army. Napoleon, however, left a division of eight thousand men under Marshal Mortier to superintend the evacuation of the city. For several days Mortier and his brave little band defended themselves in the Kremlin against their Russian assail-

ants, when, on the 22d, they abandoned the city to join Napoleon. Before leaving Moscow, barrels of gunpowder had been placed under various parts of the Kremlin, which were lighted by means of a fuse. No sooner had the Russians entered the Kremlin than that venerable edifice was blown into the air; and pieces of timber, rocks, broken weapons, pieces of cannon and mutilated bodies were thrown in every direction. The thunders of the explosion awoke Napoleon and his troops, thirty miles distant. Mortier and his little band reached the main army in safety.

On the 24th of October, 1812, a portion of the French army, under Murat, after a succession of stubborn engagements, defeated the Russians at Malo-Yaraslevetz and remained masters of the town. This was a useless victory for the French, who soon found themselves obliged to retreat as rapidly as possible by the very route which their advance had exhausted.

The horrors of this retreat of the French army exceeded anything recorded in the annals of war. The Russians sent out their Cossacks, under Platoff, who greatly annoyed the French rear and cut off French straggling parties; while the main division of the Russian army pursued the retreating French troops and forced them to contest every inch of ground. The French army was encumbered with its sick and dying. On the 6th of November, 1812, an enemy far more terrible than the bullets of the Russians or the lances of the Cossacks made its appearance. This enemy was a Russian winter of unusual severity. The thermometer sank to eighteen degrees below zero, and the cold wind howled furiously over the vast steppes. The French army was becoming weaker and weaker by the casualties of battle and by fatigue, hunger and cold. The roads were strewn with the dead and dying men and horses. The starving troops fell upon the dead and dying horses and devoured their flesh like famished dogs, and many who had remained with the dying embers of the bivouac fires fell asleep to wake no more. All discipline was gone, and all the

heavy artillery was abandoned to the pursuing Russians.

The main Russian army, under Kutusoff, numbering one hundred thousand men, advanced by a route parallel to that of the French army; while another army, under Wittgenstein, pressed upon the French rear; and Platoff's Cossacks harassed the retreating troops, and cut off such as were so unfortunate as to stray from their ranks. On the 9th of November, 1812, Napoleon and his wearied troops reached Smolensk, where they rested until the 15th, when the disastrous retreat was renewed. The French rear-guard, under Marshal Ney, was almost totally destroyed.

In the battles of Krasnoi, on the 16th, 17th and 18th of November, 1812, the French lost thirty thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners. Ney's fortunate but dangerous passage of the frozen Dnieper was one of the most daring feats recorded in history. The troops crossed the thin ice in safety; but the wagons containing the sick and wounded sank, amid the shrieks of the unfortunate sufferers.

The most horrible of this series of horrors was the passage of the Beresina. While the French were passing over the bridges, the enemy under Wittgenstein and Platoff appeared, and opened a heavy attack upon them. One of the bridges, unable to bear the weight of the crowd upon it, broke, thus precipitating into the stream thousands, whose dying shrieks were heard loud above the roar of the Russian cannon and the cheers of the Cossacks. Many who attempted to cross over the other bridge were swept off by the Russian artillery, or thrown over in the confusion by their comrades. The following spring, when the ice melted, thirty-six thousand dead bodies were found in the channel of the Beresina.

The mournful disaster just related completed the destruction of Napoleon's Grand Army. When the remnants of the French army reached the Niemen, the rear guard, under Marshal Ney, Prince of the Moskwa, "the Bravest of the Brave," was reduced to thirty men. The veteran marshal, bearing

a musket and pointing it at the pursuing enemy, was the last of the Grand Army that left the Russian territory. Napoleon had already left the army on the 5th of December, 1812, and started in a sledge for Paris, where he arrived on the 18th. In this disastrous campaign the losses of Napoleon were as follows: One hundred and twenty-five thousand men killed in battle; one hundred and thirty-two thousand died from cold, hunger and fatigue; and one hundred and ninety-three thousand made prisoners by the Russians. Thus the total loss was four hundred and fifty thousand men.

Late in May, 1813, Lord Wellington marched from Ciudad Rodrigo into the north-eastern part of Spain; and he annihilated the French forces under Marshal Jourdan and King Joseph Bonaparte in the decisive battle of Vittoria, June 21, 1813, the French losing ten thousand men and one hundred and fifty pieces of cannon. The result of this great British victory was that the French were compelled to evacuate the entire Spanish peninsula and to retire into their own territory before the close of the year; and early in July, 1813, Wellington was master of the entire Spanish side of the Pyrenees. Marshal Soult was again sent to oppose the renowned British general, but was driven back after almost a week's fighting in the passes of the Pyrenees, and was thus forced to retreat into France. Wellington took San Sebastian by storm, August 31, 1813, and Pampeluna by siege soon afterward; after which he pursued the retreating French across the Pyrenees into their own territory. He entered France on the 7th of October, 1813, and on the 10th of November he defeated Marshal Soult on the Nivelle. Bayonne was invested by an Anglo-Portuguese force under Marshal Beresford.

The moral effect of the Russian disaster was a far more serious misfortune to Napoleon than the loss of his great army; as it destroyed the belief in his invincibility, and consequently encouraged the subject nations to throw off the supremacy before which

they had been compelled to bow, and to assert their former dignity and independence. It proved to be, as Talleyrand called it, "the beginning of the end."

Prussia was the first of the powers which had suffered from the insolence of the great conqueror to take advantage of the great misfortune which had befallen him. As early as December, 1812, the Prussian General York, who had commanded under the

cluded an alliance with Russia and Sweden and declared war against the French Emperor. The King of Prussia welcomed the Russian army in Berlin.

The intense ill-usage which Prussia experienced at Napoleon's hands had excited such detestation of the foreign despotism that the Prussian king's "Call to his people" to take up arms aroused an incredible military ardor, and the greatest enthusiasm



NAPOLEON'S RETURN FROM RUSSIA.

French Marshal Macdonald in the Russian campaign, had entered into an agreement with the Russian Marshal Diebitsch to cease from hostilities against Russia. Although the conduct of York was at first disapproved by the Prussian government, the patriotic war spirit of the Prussian people was every day becoming more manifest. At length, on the 3d of February, 1813, Prussia con-

pervaded all classes of the Prussian people. Men and youths abandoned their accustomed pursuits, and left the circles of affection that they might devote their energies to their country's liberation from foreign domination. Students and professors left the lecture-room; officials left their posts; young nobles left their homes. All shouldered the musket and carried the knapsack,

and entered the ranks as common soldiers, along with the mechanic who had deserted the workshop, and with the peasant who had left the plow that he might wield the sword.

The people of Hamburg rose against the French garrison, and opened their gates to the Russians, their harbor to the English. The Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia sought to gain the alliance of the King of Saxony; but Frederick Augustus, through fear of the French Emperor, and through gratitude for the many proofs of favor and confidence which Napoleon had shown him, held fast to his alliance with the French Emperor, at whose disposal he had placed his lands, his fortresses and his troops, thus making Saxony the theater of hostilities.

Notwithstanding his great losses in Russia, Napoleon's ascendancy over the French nation was so great that every demand which he made for men and money met with a prompt response; and by the opening of the year 1813 he succeeded in raising a new army of three hundred and fifty thousand men, exclusive of his troops in Spain. Napoleon left Paris, April 15, 1813, and hastened to Erfurt, in Saxony, where he assumed the command of his army, and marched against the allied forces. Thus began the *War of German Liberation*.

The spring campaign of 1813 was favorable to Napoleon. He gained a victory over the allied Russian and Prussian armies at Lutzen, May 2, 1813, the place rendered famous by the victory and death of Gustavus Adolphus nearly two centuries before; the allies being forced to retreat after a terrific conflict, in which the Prussian Marshal Scharnhorst and the French Marshal Bessières were slain. Napoleon pursued the retreating allies; and after a desperate engagement of two days at Bautzen, May 20 and 21, 1813, he was again victorious, and the allied Russian and Prussian armies were driven from their intrenched camp. The losses were heavy on both sides, and during the pursuit the next day the French Marshal Duroc was killed. The death of Du-

roc, whom Napoleon loved and esteemed above all others for his amiability, fidelity and attachment, was a great shock to the French Emperor, who thus for the first time gave way to a dark presentiment of the mutabilities of life.

The defeated Russians and Prussians retreated into Silesia, falling back to Schweidnitz, pursued as far as Breslau by the victorious French. The allies now asked for an armistice; and Napoleon granted one for eight weeks—from June 4th to July 28th—for the purpose of negotiating a peace. In the meantime the French Emperor had established his headquarters at Dresden.

Marshal Davoust, at the head of a corps of French and Danes, retook Hamburg, May 30, 1813; and, in revenge for the expulsion of the French garrison, he destroyed eight thousand houses, thus rendering forty-eight thousand people homeless. An English fleet appeared off Copenhagen, May 31, 1813, and demanded the cession of Norway to Sweden; whereupon King Frederick VI. of Denmark concluded a treaty with Napoleon at Copenhagen, promising to declare war against Sweden, Russia and Prussia.

The armistice had been concluded through the mediation of Austria; but the allies were insincere in their professed desire for peace, as they employed the time afforded by the armistice to organize another Coalition of all the other European powers against France. Austria pushed forward her military preparations with all possible haste, and at length submitted her ultimatum to Napoleon, demanding as the price of her aid to France that he should surrender Poland, Holland, Spain, Switzerland and half of Italy, and also that the Confederation of the Rhine should be dissolved and that the Pope should be reestablished in his temporal power at Rome. Napoleon indignantly rejected Austria's terms; but the peace Congress convened at Prague, according to prearrangement, July 4, 1813. After several weeks of fruitless negotiations, hostilities were renewed August 10, 1813, when the Emperor of Austria joined the allies and declared war against his son-in-law.

The following were the treaties constituting the new Coalition against Napoleon:

1. The Treaty of Reichenbach between Great Britain and Prussia, June 14, 1813, by which the former agreed to furnish a subsidy of six hundred and sixty-six thousand six hundred and sixty-six pounds sterling to the latter for the maintenance of eighty thousand troops, while the King of Prussia agreed to cede the principality of Hildesheim and other territory to the Electorate of Hanover. 2. The Treaty of Reichenbach between Great Britain and Russia, June 15, 1813, by which the former agreed to pay to the latter a subsidy of one million three hundred and thirty-three thousand three hundred and thirty-four pounds sterling for the maintenance of one hundred and sixty thousand troops. 3. The Treaty of Reichenbach between Austria, Prussia and Russia, June 27, 1813, by which Austria engaged to declare war against Napoleon if he rejected her conditions of peace. 4. The Treaty of Peterswaldau between Great Britain and Russia, July 6, 1813, by which the former agreed to support a German legion of ten thousand men for the Russian service. 5. The Treaty of Toplitz between Austria, Prussia and Russia, September 9, 1813, by which these three powers were to aid each other with sixty thousand troops. 6. The Treaty of Toplitz between Great Britain and Austria.

The plan of the fall campaign of 1813 for the allies had been agreed upon in a conference held at Trachenberg by the Emperor Alexander I. of Russia, King Frederick William III. of Prussia, the Crown Prince Bernadotte of Sweden, and the plenipotentiaries of Austria and Great Britain. The allied forces numbered seven hundred thousand men, and were divided into seven armies—the Army of Bohemia, under the Austrian Prince Schwarzenberg, consisting of two hundred and thirty-seven thousand men, Austrians, Prussians and Russians, with six hundred and ninety-eight pieces of cannon; the Army of the North, under the Crown Prince Bernadotte of Sweden, numbering one hundred and fifty-four thousand men,

Prussians, Russians and Swedes, with three hundred and eighty-seven pieces of cannon; the Army of Silesia, under the Prussian Field Marshal Blücher, amounting to ninety-five thousand men, Prussians and Russians, with three hundred and fifty-six pieces of cannon; the Austrian Army of Bavaria, under the Prince of Reuss, containing forty-two thousand seven hundred troops, with forty-two pieces of cannon; the Austrian Army of Italy, under General Hiller, fifty thousand strong, with one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon; the Austrian Army of Reserve, under Duke Ferdinand of Würtemberg, sixty thousand strong, stationed between Vienna and Presburg; and the Russian Army of Reserve in Poland, under Benningsen, fifty-seven thousand strong, with one hundred and ninety-eight pieces of cannon.

To oppose these immense forces of his enemies, Napoleon had an army of four hundred and sixty-two thousand men, including eighty thousand who occupied thirteen fortresses. He had, besides this force, the Bavarian army, which watched the movements of the Austrian army under the Prince of Reuss, and an army of forty thousand men under the viceroy Eugene Beauharnais in Italy.

Hostilities were resumed with vigor; and the allied Austrian, Prussian and Russian army under Prince Schwarzenberg—the Army of Bohemia—marched against Napoleon at Dresden, but was repulsed by him before that famous Saxon capital after a bloody battle of two days, August 26 and 27, 1813. In this battle General Moreau, who had been recalled from America by Bernadotte, and who now fought on the side of the allies, was mortally wounded. In the battle of Dresden the vanquished allies lost twenty-five thousand men, of whom six thousand were killed and wounded, and twenty-six pieces of artillery; while the victorious French lost eighteen thousand men. After their defeat the allies retreated toward Bohemia.

The advantages which Napoleon might have secured by his victory at Dresden were

lost by the defeats sustained by his marshals and generals at other points. The allied Army of the North under Bernadotte covered Berlin, which was menaced by a French force of eighty thousand men under Marshal Oudinot; but the victory of the Prussians under Bulow at Gross-Beeren, August 23, 1813, saved the Prussian capital from the French.

The allied Army of Silesia under Blucher attacked and defeated the French under Marshal Macdonald at the Katzbach, in Silesia, August 26, 1813, taking ten thousand prisoners and one hundred and three pieces of artillery. A French detachment of eight thousand men under General Puthod was obliged to surrender to the Russians under Count Langeron at Plagwitz, August 29, 1813.

A French detachment of thirty thousand men under Vandamme, which had been sent to cut off the retreat of the allies before the battle of Dresden, repulsed eight thousand Russians under Count Ostermann Tolstoi as far as the valley of Kulm, in Bohemia, August 29, 1813, Count Ostermann Tolstoi having his left arm shot off; but when the Russians were reinforced by several Russian and Prussian detachments, sent to their aid by the King of Prussia, the allies were enabled to maintain their position. During the night new Russian reinforcements under Barclay de Tolly arrived; and the next day, August 30, 1813, the battle of Kulm was decided by Kleist's daring march across the height of Nollendorf behind Vandamme's position, thus cutting off his retreat. A part of the French cavalry cut their way through a regiment of recruits, but Vandamme himself surrendered with ten thousand men and eighty-one pieces of artillery.

Napoleon sent Marshal Ney with eighty thousand men to capture Berlin; but Ney was routed by Bernadotte at Dennewitz, September 6, 1813, the victorious Crown Prince of Sweden taking twenty thousand prisoners, with eighty pieces of artillery and all the French baggage.

Bavaria now concluded the Treaty of

Ried with Austria, and the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine were beginning to join the allies. The allies now proceeded to concentrate their armies at Dresden in Napoleon's rear, in order to cut off his retreat to France. After passing several days in indecision as to his course, the French Emperor left Dresden, October 7, 1813, with one hundred and forty thousand men, and fell back to Leipsic, where he arrived October 15, 1813.

Napoleon's army was largely outnumbered by the allied Armies of the North, Bohemia and Silesia and the Russian Army of Reserve; consisting of the Austrians under Prince Schwarzenberg, the Prussians under Blucher, the Russians under Barclay de Tolly and Benningsen, and the Swedes under the Crown Prince Bernadotte; together numbering two hundred and thirty thousand men, under the command of the Austrian marshal, Prince Schwarzenberg. The allies had maneuvered so skillfully that they were ready to effect a junction at a given signal.

In the terrible three days' battle of Leipsic, October 16, 17 and 18, 1813—the *Battle of the Nations*—almost half a million of men were engaged in the work of death. The first day's conflicts fought at the villages of Wachau, Connewitz and Lindenau ended in Napoleon's success over Prince Schwarzenberg; but Blucher defeated the French under Marshal Marmont at Mockern. At night Napoleon, aware that the numerical superiority of the allies must tell in the end, made proposals of peace; but the allies, who were hourly expecting reinforcements, rejected his overtures. The fighting on the second day was indecisive, but Napoleon began to be aware of his perilous position.

For the first time Napoleon foresaw the possibility of defeat, and sent General Bertrand with a detachment to Weissenfels to secure the bridge over the Saal. The allies rejected Napoleon's proposals for peace and an armistice at daybreak on the morning of the third day of the battle. The French resisted the assaults of the allies with great bravery, but the numerical superiority of



BATTLE OF THE KATZBACH.



BATTLE OF LEIPZIG.

the allies finally prevailed, and Napoleon was in the end defeated with heavy loss. During the battle the Saxons and Würtembergers, twelve thousand in number, deserted Napoleon and went over to the Swedes under Bernadotte. The arrival of Bernadotte and Blücher finally decided the battle in favor of the allies. The carnage was frightful.

Napoleon was obliged to order a retreat; and on the morning of October 19, 1813, the French army abandoned Leipzig, which was then in the possession of the allies. The only means of escape was a single, long, narrow bridge across the Pleisse, the Elster and the marshes between them. This bridge was crowded to its utmost capacity, and the greater part of the French army passed over safely, but by a mistake of the French engineer the order for the destruction of the bridge was executed so hastily that the bridge was blown up before all the French troops had crossed. Thus the divisions under Marshal MacDonald and the brave Pole Prince Poniatowski, numbering together thirty thousand men, being cut off, were obliged to surrender to the victorious allies. Marshal MacDonald and the King of Saxony were made prisoners, and Prince Poniatowski was drowned while endeavoring to swim across the Elster. Napoleon's losses in the battle of Leipzig were seventy thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners, and three hundred pieces of cannon. The allies purchased their victory with the death of fifty thousand men.

The French army now made a hasty retreat to the Rhine. The Austro-Bavarian army of fifty thousand men under General Wrede attempted to intercept Napoleon's retreat, but was defeated at Hanau, in Hesse Cassel, October 30, 1813. In this battle Napoleon lost twenty-five thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners. Napoleon's retreat now became a rapid flight; and it was with great difficulty that he was enabled to cross the Rhine at Mayence, November 2, 1813, with the thirty-five thousand men that still remained of his shattered army. Leaving his routed army to watch

the frontier, Napoleon hastened to Paris, arriving there November 9, 1813.

The victorious allies pursued the French to the Rhine immediately after the battle of Leipzig; and on November 5, 1813, the Emperor Alexander I. of Russia established his headquarters at Frankfort-on-the-Main. The French garrisons on the Elbe, the Oder and the Vistula surrendered during the remainder of the year 1813. Marshal St. Cyr, with twenty-seven thousand men, surrendered at Dresden. Dantzic surrendered with twenty thousand French troops, and Torgau with ten thousand. After the battle of Leipzig, Bernadotte with the allied Army of the North marched against the French under Marshal Davoust and their allies, the Danes. Davoust was blockaded at Hamburg, and the Danes retired into Schleswig, whereupon an armistice was granted to them.

The battle of Leipzig was the death-blow to the French Empire. The dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine, the downfall of the Kingdom of Westphalia, the restoration of Hanover to the British king, the restoration of the Elector of Hesse Cassel and of the Dukes of Brunswick and Oldenburg to their governments, and Holland's recovery of her independence under the House of Orange, were events which occurred in rapid succession. Baden and Würtemberg entered into treaties with Austria, and joined their forces to those of the allies. King Frederick VI. of Denmark, who had thus far firmly adhered to his alliance with Napoleon, was compelled to conclude the Peace of Kiel with Great Britain and Sweden, January 14, 1814, by which he ceded Norway to Sweden in exchange for Swedish Pomerania and the Isle of Rugen; whereupon Denmark joined the allies in the war against Napoleon, and received a subsidy of thirty-three thousand three hundred and thirty-three pounds sterling monthly from Great Britain for the maintenance of ten thousand troops.

In the meantime fortune was also averse to the French in Italy. In May, 1813, the viceroy Eugene Beauharnais had taken com-

mand of the French army of Italy, which occupied the Illyrian Provinces; but he was driven beyond the Adige by the Austrian army of Italy under General Hiller, who thus recovered Carinthia, Illyria and Dalmatia, and who, after obtaining possession of the Tyrol, was threatening to cut off the viceroy's retreat. Murat, King of Naples, Napoleon's brother-in-law, believing the French Emperor to be irretrievably ruined, accepted the promises of the allies, and entered into a secret alliance with Austria, early in 1814, for the expulsion of the French from Italy. But Eugene Beauharnais remained loyal to Napoleon, although the allies offered him the crown of Lombardy if he would join them in the war against France. Early in 1814 Pope Pius VII. was released by Napoleon from his captivity at Fontainebleau, and was restored to his authority in Rome. Napoleon had also released King Ferdinand VII. of Spain from his six years' captivity in France, and solemnly recognized him as King of Spain, December, 1813.

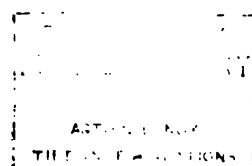
The Emperors of Austria and Russia and the King of Prussia held a council with their Ministers and generals at Frankfort-on-the-Main, established a provisional government for the conquered lands, and made the French Emperor another offer of peace if he would surrender his conquests; but Napoleon again resolved to risk the hazards of battle. Upon his return to Paris he frankly laid before the French Senate a statement of the actual condition of affairs, and demanded another levy of three hundred thousand men. His demand was granted by the obsequious Senate, and new taxes were added to the already heavy burdens of France in order to meet the expenses of the impending campaign. As the Corps Legislatif was not so subservient, Napoleon dissolved it. But with all his exertions he was only able to raise an army of about one hundred and ten thousand men, not including the troops confronting Lord Wellington's army in the South of France.

As Napoleon refused to consent to a peace requiring him to surrender his conquests,

the allied monarchs determined upon his dethronement, and with this view they ordered their armies to cross the Rhine. France was now to be invaded on all sides, and the evils and humiliations which she had inflicted upon other nations were to be retaliated upon herself. Altogether the allies had more than a million men under arms to crush Napoleon. The allied armies under Blucher and Schwarzenberg were ready to enter France on the east; Bernadotte, the Crown Prince of Sweden, was advancing through Holland; the Austrians under Bellegarde were ready to cross the Alps from Italy; Wellington was in the South of France with the British and Portuguese forces; and the Anglo-Sicilian and Spanish armies were ready to cross the Pyrenees from Catalonia.

The allied Grand Army of one hundred thousand men, composed chiefly of Austrians and commanded by Prince Schwarzenberg, advanced into France through Switzerland, regardless of the neutrality of the Swiss, crossing the Rhine at Basle, December 21, 1813, and leisurely marched to Langres, which surrendered on January 16, 1814. The allied Army of Silesia under Field Marshal Blucher, consisting of Prussians and Russians, crossed the Rhine at several points between Mannheim and Coblenz before dawn on New Year's Day 1814, advanced into France on the north-east, and occupied Metz, Thionville and Nancy. Another army, consisting of Prussians under Bulow and Russians under Winzingerode, invaded France by way of Holland and Belgium, after driving the French from Holland and enabling the Prince of Orange to return to his Stadtholdership. The allied English and Portuguese army under Lord Wellington, after driving the French from the Spanish peninsula, pursued Marshal Soult across the Pyrenees into France and besieged Bayonne; and a portion of this Anglo-Portuguese army under Marshal Beresford took Bordeaux, where the Bourbons were proclaimed by the people.

After completing his preparations for the campaign, Napoleon summoned the com-





THE ALLIED FORCES ON THE ROAD TO PARIS

er and principal officers of the National Guard of Paris to the Tuileries, January 23, 1814, and confided the Empress Louisa and his little son, the King of Rome, to their protection; and two days later he left Paris for Chalons-sur-Marne, where he assumed the command of his army.

Blücher and Schwarzenberg united their armies in Champagne, and, after fighting Napoleon the indecisive battle of La Rothière, on the 27th of January, 1814, gained a victory over him in the battle of La Fère, on the 1st of February. But the armies again separated; and the French Emperor, whose great military talents again shone forth in all their brilliancy, inflicted several defeats upon Blücher at Champault, Montmirail, Chateau-Thierry and Vauchamps. He then suddenly fell upon and defeated Schwarzenberg at Montereau, and on the night of the 23d of February the French bombarded Troyes and compelled the allies to evacuate the town. Napoleon then unsuccessfully attacked Soissons. He was reinforced by the allied Russian army under Bulow and Winzingerode at Soissons, March 3, 1814. Napoleon defeated a Russian detachment under Wolf at Craonne, March 7, 1814, but was himself defeated by Blücher at Laon, March 14. Napoleon afterward attacked Paris and compelled the Russians to evacuate that famous city; after which he fought the indecisive battle of Arcis-sur-Aube against Prince Schwarzenberg, March 20, 1814. Napoleon said that he dreaded Blücher more than any other of the allied generals, as "the old devil was no sooner beaten than ready to fight again." In the South of France the English under Wellington defeated the French army under Marshal Masséna at Orthez, February 27, 1814. In the meantime fresh negotiations for peace had been opened at Chatillon, February 9; and the allies were so alarmed by Napoleon's defeats in February that Napoleon had secured himself on the throne of France had he consented to surrender the provinces which he had formerly conquered;

but, as the French Emperor increased his demands with every favorable turn of fortune, and only gave limited powers to his envoy, Caulaincourt, while he paralyzed the negotiations by ambiguous and unmeaning declarations, the decision was delayed until after Blücher's victory at Laon, when the allies suddenly broke off the negotiations and resolved upon the dethronement of Napoleon.

The allies saw that only by a firm agreement among themselves could they secure all the fruits of their victory at Leipsic; and by the Treaty of Chaumont, March 1, 1814, which became the basis of the new States-System of Europe, Great Britain, Austria, Prussia and Russia formed a Quadruple Alliance, by which each of those four great powers agreed to keep an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men under arms against the common enemy, and Great Britain promised to furnish each of the other three powers a subsidy of five million pounds sterling for the year 1814.

Napoleon maneuvered in the rear of the allies to intimidate them into a retreat into Germany; whereupon Blücher and Schwarzenberg marched on Paris; and, after a battle in the suburbs of Montmartre, Belleville and Romainville, which covered the capital, Joseph Bonaparte, to whom Napoleon had entrusted the defense of the capital, retired with the Empress Maria Louisa and the regency to Blois. On the 31st of March, 1814, Marshals Mortier and Marmont, perceiving the folly of any further resistance, surrendered Paris to the enemy; and on the same day the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia entered that proud capital. A provisional government was now formed, at the head of which was Talleyrand, who had deserted the cause of Napoleon, and who now devoted himself to the restoration of the Bourbons to the throne of France.

On the 2d of April, 1814, Napoleon was formally deposed by the French Senate; and, after vainly endeavoring to secure the crown of France to his son, he signed, on the 6th of April, 1814, the unconditional abdication of the thrones of France and Italy. On the 10th of April, 1814, a few



NAPOLEON SIGNING HIS ABDICATION AT FONTAINEBLEAU.

days after the abdication of Napoleon, the English army under Wellington won a brilliant victory at Toulouse over the French army commanded by Marshal Soult. A few days after the battle, news of the capture of Paris and the fall of Napoleon reached both armies, and hostilities were suspended.

On the 11th of April, 1814, Napoleon agreed to a treaty with the allies at Fontainebleau, by which he received the sovereignty of the little island of Elba, in the Mediterranean sea, with the title of Emperor and a pension of two million francs. On the 20th of April, 1814, Napoleon ordered the Imperial Guard to be assembled in the court-yard of Fontainebleau; and, amid the tears of the gallant veterans, he took leave of them with a sad heart. He then started for Elba, where he arrived on the 4th of May, 1814.

The Count of Provence, brother of Louis XVI., returning from his long exile, entered Paris on the 3d of May, 1814, and was received with demonstrations of joy by the inhabitants. He was now seated on the throne of France, with the title of LOUIS XVIII. He was required to govern according to a constitution, called the *Charter*, by which the powers of the king were limited, and the rights of the French people defined and secured. On the 30th of May, 1814, a treaty of peace was concluded at Paris between France and the allied powers, by which the boundaries of France were restricted to what they had been in 1792; and the general tranquillity of Europe appeared to be secured. By this First Peace of Paris, France recovered all her foreign possessions except the islands of Tobago and St. Lucia, in the West Indies, and Mauritius, in the Indian Ocean, which were ceded to Great Britain, as was also the island of Malta, in the Mediterranean.

After the conclusion of the First Peace of Paris, the allied armies evacuated France, and Louis XVIII. was left at liberty to administer the affairs of his kingdom. He opened the new legislative Chambers, June 4, 1814, when he promulgated a new *Char-*

ter, or constitution, slightly differing from the one which he had promised before his entry into Paris. He declared that all the powers of government rightfully belonged to the crown; but that, in consequence of the changed condition of the times, he, following the example of several of his predecessors, resolved to make several changes in the constitution, and of his own free will granted this Charter to his subjects. There was to be a Chamber of Peers, whose members were to be nominated by the crown either for life or with hereditary descent, and their number was to be unlimited. The Chamber of Deputies was to consist of representatives chosen by the qualified voters of France, and its members were required to have reached the age of forty and to pay at least one thousand francs annually in taxes. The right of suffrage was restricted to persons thirty years of age and over, who should pay an annual tax of three hundred francs. The sole power of proposing laws was vested in the king. The Chambers had the privilege of requesting the king to propose a law upon any subject which they considered necessary, but if he should refuse their request they could not renew it until their next session. The Roman Catholic Church was declared the state-religion of France, but full toleration was granted to all Christian sects.

The Bourbons were no sooner restored to the throne of France than they endeavored to reëstablish the state of things which existed before the Revolution, and their imprudent and impolitic conduct excited the Bonapartists and the republicans against them. The tricolor was displaced by the white ensign of the Bourbons; and the memory of the Republic and of the Empire was, as much as possible, obliterated. The stipulated pension which was to be paid to Napoleon was also withheld. The old aristocracy treated the new nobility with contempt, and the Legion of Honor was disgraced. The royal court was under the influence of the king's brother, the Count of Artois, and of the Duchess of Angoulême, daughter of Louis XVI., who had the most

bitter hatred for the men of the Revolution and of the Napoleonic period. Thus the Bourbons showed that they "had learned nothing and forgotten nothing." These and other causes led to the formation of plots for the restoration of Napoleon to power. The majority of the French people felt deeply the humiliation of living under a king forced upon them by foreign bayonets, and longed for that Emperor under whose banners their armies had so often been led to battle and to victory.

A Congress composed of plenipotentiaries of the European powers assembled at Vienna, September 25, 1814, for the settlement of European affairs. The most prominent figures in the Congress of Vienna were the Emperor Alexander I. of Russia, Prince Metternich of Austria, Talleyrand of France and Lord Castlereagh of Great Britain. This Congress of Vienna was a brilliant assembly, and the princes and plenipotentiaries of the allied powers were there rejoicing over their great victory over the potentate who had so long held Europe in thrall-dom. There was no end to the balls, banquets and entertainments.

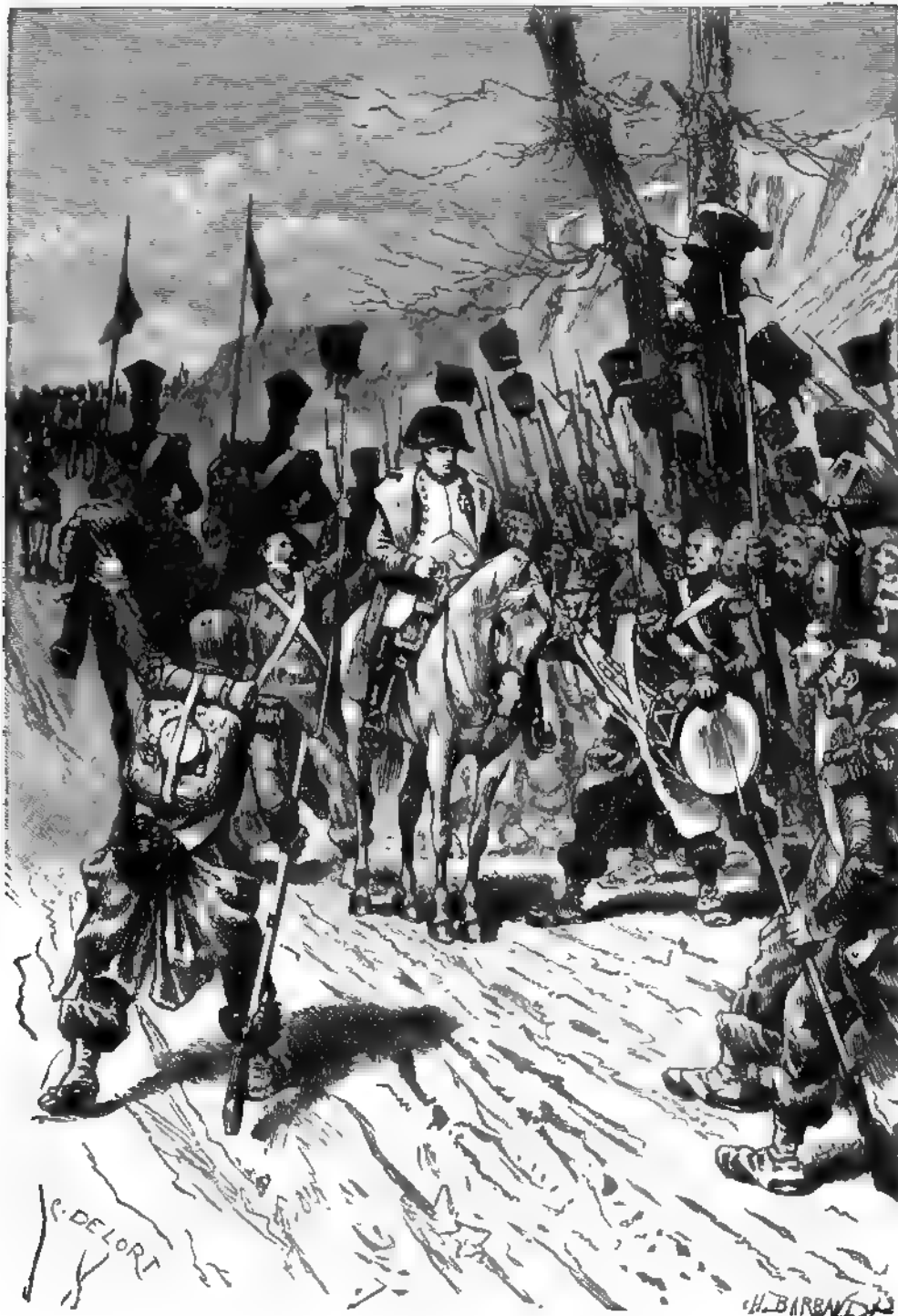
Amid all this show and pomp were bitter passions and angry feelings. Divisions arose in the Congress on the question of the rearrangement of the conquered countries. Prussia demanded the whole of Saxony, and Russia insisted on absorbing the whole of Poland; but both demands were stoutly resisted by the other powers. The armies were placed upon a war footing, and it seemed probable that the powers which had so recently combined to overthrow Napoleon would turn their arms against each other; but when the astounding intelligence that Napoleon had left Elba, and had landed on the southern coast of France, reached the Congress, all divisions were cast aside; and the Congress unanimously agreed to take vigorous measures for the overthrow of the man whose ambition troubled the world.

Encouraged by the discontent of the French people with the rule of the Bourbons, Napoleon left Elba; and on the 1st

of March, 1815, he landed at Cannes, near Frejus, on the southern coast of France. He was accompanied by only one thousand men; but he trusted that the prestige of his name, and the zealous attachment of the troops whom he had so often led to victory, would restore him to power. The troops that had been sent against him joined his standard with the wildest enthusiasm. The tricolor was again displayed everywhere. The citizens of Grenoble opened their gates to him, and Colonel Labedoyère joined him with the garrison of the town. When Napoleon approached, the garrison had orders to fire upon him; but the ex-Emperor advanced alone at the head of his followers and bared his breast, exclaiming: "Is there any of you who will fire at his Emperor!" Thereupon the garrison, seized with one wild impulse of enthusiasm, shouted: "Vive l'Empereur!" The garrison and its commandant then joined Napoleon.

The Count of Artois, brother of King Louis XVIII., vainly tried to keep the troops at Lyons firm in their allegiance to their king. They unanimously declared for Napoleon, crying: "Vive l'Empereur!" Marshal Ney, who had been sent against Napoleon, and who had sworn that he would bring the ex-Emperor to Paris in chains, joined him with the troops. All the old marshals, except Marmont, Macdonald and Augereau, espoused the cause of Napoleon, who entered Paris on the evening of the 20th of March, 1815, Louis XVIII. having left the city on the morning of the same day. Thus, in the course of three weeks, without one drop of bloodshed, Napoleon was again master of all France. Then began the period historically known as the *Hundred Days*.

Louis XVIII. and a few faithful adherents fled to Ghent; while Napoleon again took up his residence in the Tuileries, and formed a new Ministry from among his partisans. Clubs were again formed in France, and the songs of the Revolution were again heard. But Napoleon still entertained his dislike for popular movements, thus showing that he also "had learned nothing and forgotten



NAPOLEON'S RETURN FROM ELBA.

nothing." The liberal party in France resisted his scheme for the reëstablishment of the imperial throne with its splendor and its national nobility, and was dissatisfied with the new constitution which was sworn to at the festival of the Champ de Mai, April 21, 1815, although it was more liberal than the Charter granted by Louis XVIII., and although Napoleon had thus made great sacrifices in order to conciliate the liberal party, which plainly intimated to him that he could only reign thenceforth as a constitutional sovereign. Napoleon promised the allied powers to abide by the conditions of the First Peace of Paris, and never again to disturb the tranquillity of Europe, if he or his son was left in possession of the crown of France.

On the landing of Napoleon at Cannes, Murat broke off his alliance with Austria, and summoned the Italian people to arms against that power. Advancing northward, at the head of the Neapolitan army, Murat was defeated by the Austrians in the battle of Tolentino, on the 23d of May, 1815. He then fled to France, and his Kingdom of Naples reverted to its former sovereign, Ferdinand IV. Napoleon, indignant because of Murat's desertion of his cause in 1814, refused to receive him in Paris.

The Congress of Vienna, when informed of the events which had just transpired in France, declared that the Emperor Napoleon had placed himself beyond the pale of society, and that, as an enemy and a disturber of the peace of Europe, he had made himself liable to public vengeance. At the same time Russia, Prussia, Austria and England entered into a treaty by which they agreed to raise an army of six hundred thousand men to crush the man whom no treaties could bind. Napoleon raised a new army of three hundred and seventy thousand men. In the meantime the allies were preparing to invade France from all sides. The English under Wellington and the Prussians under Blücher were concentrating in Belgium. The Austrians were advancing through Northern Italy, and the Russians were rapidly hastening to the theater of

action. For the purpose of preventing France from again becoming the seat of war, Napoleon, with one hundred and twenty thousand men, advanced into Belgium, about the middle of June, 1815, with the view of annihilating the armies of Wellington and Blücher.

Napoleon crossed the Belgian frontier, June 14, 1815. His plan was to attack the Prussians, while Marshal Ney with forty-five thousand men was to hold Wellington's army in check and to prevent it from joining Blücher, after which Napoleon would reinforce Ney and crush the English army. His plan was betrayed to Blücher by the French General Bourmont, who deserted to the Prussians with his staff on that very night, June 14, 1815.

On the 15th of June, 1815, Napoleon assaulted Charleroi and compelled the Prussians under Ziethen to evacuate the town. At about noon on the 16th, June, 1815, Napoleon, at the head of eighty thousand men, attacked sixty thousand Prussians under Blücher at Ligny; while at the same time Marshal Ney with thirty thousand assailed the English under Wellington at Quatre-Bras. The battle of Ligny was long and bloody, and ended in the defeat of the Prussians, who retired with the loss of fifteen thousand men, and left the field in possession of Napoleon, who lost about ten thousand men. After a desperate engagement at Quatre-Bras, in which the gallant Duke William of Brunswick was mortally wounded, the English were victorious, and Ney was obliged to retire from the bloody field with the loss of four thousand men. Napoleon's victory at Ligny rendered the English victory at Quatre-Bras useless; and on the following day, June 17, 1815, Wellington fell back to the village of Waterloo, about nine miles from Brussels.

The next morning, June 18, 1815, which was Sunday, was rainy and tempestuous. On that morning Napoleon ascended the opposite hill of La Belle Alliance, and for the first time he saw Wellington's army. Napoleon had eighty thousand men, and Wellington had seventy thousand. The



FERDINAND VON SCHILL.



MARSHAL MURAT



WELLINGTON.



GEORHARD LEBERECHE VON BLUCHER.

THE WARS OF LIBERATION.



RETREAT FROM WATERLOO

chateau of Hougoumont and the farm-house of La Haye Sainte were strongly garrisoned with English troops. Napoleon had detached Marshal Grouchy with thirty thousand men to hang upon the rear of the beaten Prussians at Wavre, while he himself assailed the English under Wellington at Waterloo.

The great battle of Waterloo began at about noon, when the French opened a heavy artillery fire on the British lines and assaulted Hougoumont, but were repulsed.

A concentrated attack on the British right also failed. The French cuirassiers afterward vainly attempted to break the English center, but they drove back the English troops who had followed them. La Haye Sainte was captured and lost by the French infantry. The French cuirassiers next made a furious assault on the British right, only to be disastrously repulsed. Three tremendous assaults had already failed to

break the English lines, when, at seven in the evening, Marshal Ney, by direction of Napoleon, led the Imperial Guard in a furious charge upon the English troops, while in the meantime the British line was fiercely cannonaded. The Imperial Guards reeled before the heavy musketry fire which the English opened upon them; and Wellington, observing the confusion, ordered a bayonet charge, and the result was the complete rout of these favorite veterans of Na-

poleon. The struggle on the height of Mont Sainte Jean was terrible; and General Cambronne exclaimed: "The Guard dies; it never surrenders!" These words were held in grateful remembrance by the French nation. Upon seeing the rout of his favorite veterans, Napoleon exclaimed: "All is lost!" Pale and confused, he turned his horse and galloped from the fatal field, leaving his army in charge of Marshal Soult, and hastened to Paris.

Marshal Grouchy failed to hold Blücher in check, nor did he come to Napoleon's rescue. Upon the repulse of the Imperial Guard, Blücher, with fifty thousand Prussians, came to the assistance of Wellington, who immediately assumed the offensive. The shattered remnants of the French army fled in confusion, and were pursued by the Prussians; the English, fatigued by the long and fierce contest, resting for the night on the field. The English had won a great victory,



FIELD-MARSHAL BLÜCHER.

but at the cost of fifteen thousand men in killed and wounded. Among the killed was the gallant Sir Thomas Picton. The French had lost forty thousand men and all their cannon.

Napoleon arrived in Paris two days after the battle of Waterloo, June 20, 1815, and brought the tidings of his own disastrous and decisive defeat, thus throwing the proud capital into a state of the wildest consternation. After some hesitation, Napoleon



BLECHER'S MARCH TO WASHINGTON

yielded to the proposal of the Chambers in Paris, and abdicated the throne of France in favor of his son; whereupon a provisional government, under the direction of Fouché, was formed. After the battle of Waterloo, the English and Prussian armies marched upon Paris, which was surrendered by Fouché to Wellington and Blücher on condition that no individual was to be punished for his political opinions. King Louis XVIII. reëntered his capital on the 8th of July, 1815, and was again seated on the throne of France.

In the meantime Napoleon had fled to Rochefort with the intention of escaping to America, but he found the harbor closely guarded by English war-vessels. Thus foiled, Napoleon embraced the determination of throwing himself upon the generosity of the English nation; and accordingly, on the 15th of July, 1815, he went on board the British frigate *Bellerophon*, and surrendered himself a prisoner to Captain Maitland, the commander of the vessel, who took him to the coast of England, but refused to allow him to land, or to have any communication with the people on the shore. In a letter to the Prince Regent of Great Britain, afterward King George IV., Napoleon compared himself to Themistocles seeking the protection of Admetus; but the "First Gentleman of Europe," as the Prince Regent was called, did not compare favorably with the Molossian chief. The statesmen who then wielded the destinies of Great Britain—Lord Liverpool, Castlereagh and their colleagues—had no compassion for fallen greatness; and, after some delay, the illustrious prisoner was informed that the allied monarchs had resolved to banish him to the small rocky island of St. Helena, in the South Atlantic Ocean, where he was to be kept a close prisoner for the rest of his life. Napoleon vainly protested; and on the 18th of October, 1815, he arrived at the place of his banishment.

A proscription of the family and the adherents of Napoleon followed the second abdication of the Emperor and the Second Restoration of the Bourbons. All the mem-

bers of Napoleon's family, all the marshals and statesmen who had adhered to Napoleon during the Hundred Days, and all the regicides who had voted for the death of Louis XVI., were banished; and, in violation of the terms of the second capitulation of Paris, Marshal Ney and Colonel Labédoyère were condemned and shot for treason, in joining Napoleon on his return from Elba with the troops with which they had been sent against him. They died bravely, and Ney himself gave the command to fire.

Murat, after remaining for some time in Southern France, sailed for Corsica, whence he made a descent on the coast of Southern Italy for the purpose of recovering his lost Kingdom of Naples; but he was taken prisoner, and was shot in accordance with the sentence of a court-martial, October 15, 1815.

The battle of Waterloo put an end to the long wars which the French Revolution and the ambition of Napoleon had kindled, and which had convulsed Europe for a period of twenty-three years. On the 20th of November, 1815, the Second Peace of Paris was concluded between France and the allied powers, by which the boundaries of France were limited to what they had been in 1790; France was required to pay seven hundred million francs for the expenses of the war; the works of art and literature which the French had taken from other nations were to be restored to their rightful owners; and an allied army of one hundred and fifty thousand men was to garrison the frontier fortresses of France for five years, for the purpose of insuring peace by putting down any attempted rising of the French people. The military power of France was thoroughly broken, her pride was lowered, and her humiliation was complete. The Parisians mournfully parted with the Italian statues and paintings which adorned the Louvre—the trophies of a hundred victories.

The action of the British government in banishing Napoleon to so remote and lonely a retreat has been condemned as an act of unwarrantable cruelty; but it must be remembered that such a proceeding was an act of political necessity, because the peace

of Europe was never secure against his ambition while he remained in or near Europe, as was fully demonstrated by his return from Elba. Had he been left in or near Europe, he might have been able at any time, through the aid and support of his partisans, to recover his former power in France and to again disturb the peace of Europe. Thus England, in the interests of her own independence and the independence of Europe, was obliged to resort to so harsh a measure.

The illustrious exile lived at St. Helena like a chained Prometheus, separated from his friends, in an unhealthy climate, and under the rigid guardianship of the brutal governor, Sir Hudson Lowe, whom the exiled ex-Emperor called "an executioner sent to assassinate him, a man wholly without a heart, and merely capable of discharging the office and duties of a jailor." Among the few friends who shared Napoleon's exile were General Bertrand and his family, Montholon and Las Casas. Grief at his fall, want of his accustomed activity, and irritation at the humiliating treatment accorded him, hastened him to a premature end; and, after five and a half years of unhappy exile, he found that rest in death to which he had been a stranger during his stormy and eventful life.

The renowned captive died at St. Helena at the age of fifty-two, on the night of May 5, 1821, while a terrible storm was raging on the rocky islet—fitting time for the soul of him whose life had been so stormy to take its departure. In his dying dreams he fancied himself once more at the head of his armies, and his last words were: "*Tête d'armée!*" "Head of the army!"

The following is a poem by Isaac McLellan on the death of Napoleon:

"Wild was the night—yet a wilder night
Hung round the soldier's pillow,
In his bosom there waged a fiercer fight
Than the fight on the wrathful billow.

"A few fond mourners were kneeling by,
The few that his stern heart cherished,
They knew, by his glazed and unearthly eye,
That life had nearly perished.

"They knew, by his awful and kingly look,
By the order hastily spoken,
That he dreamed of days when the nations shook,
And the nation's hosts were broken.

"He dreamed that the Frenchman's sword still slew,
And triumphed the Frenchman's eagle—
And the struggling Austrian fled anew,
Like the hare before the beagle.

"The bearded Russian he scourged again,
The Prussian's camp was routed;
And again on the hills of haughty Spain
His mighty armies shouted.

"Over Egypt's sands, over Alpine snows,
At the Pyramids, at the mountain,
Where the wave of the lordly Danube flows,
And by the Italian fountain.

"On snowy cliffs, where mountain streams
Dash by the Switzer's dwelling,
He led again, in his dying dreams,
His hosts the broad earth quelling.

"Again Marengo's field was won,
And Jena's bloody battle,
Again the world was overrun,
Made pale at his cannon's rattle.

"He died at the close of that darksome day,
A day that shall live in story,
In the rocky land they placed his clay,
And left him alone with his glory."

Such was the mournful end of Napoleon Bonaparte's career—the most brilliant and extraordinary career of ambition and conquest in the world's history. This wonderful man, by his remarkable military talents and his force of character, had risen from the condition of an unknown and friendless youth to be the greatest warrior of all time and the arbiter of the destinies of nations; and for a time Europe was at his mercy. His melancholy fall was a just retribution for the eight million human lives sacrificed through his selfish ambition. Never was ambition so brilliant in its success, so tragic in its fall.

This marvelous man drained the life-blood of France by reckless conscriptions, thus leading two millions of Frenchmen to premature deaths. He subverted the freedom of the press and of opinion. He involved the French nation in two destructive wars by a tyrannical commercial policy aris-

ing from his resentment against England. He heartlessly prosecuted his own schemes at the sacrifice of the life, liberty and happiness of other individuals and nations.

Napoleon was the heir of the French Revolution, and he knew how to profit by it without sharing its senseless and cruel fanaticism. He held human nature in contempt, and regarded most men as simply ciphers whose value was represented by the services which he could cause them to render to himself. He loved war as a professional gambler loves the game in which his skill is preëminent; and, like the professional gambler, he risked daily what he had gained the day before, and had only himself to blame for almost all of his misfortunes.

The English poet Lord Byron described Napoleon as a mighty gambler,

"Whose game was empires, and whose stakes were thrones,
Whose table earth, whose dice were human bones."

His true titles to glory were the restoration of order in France and the innumerable creations of his genius; but the comparison of the good which he did with what he might have accomplished, had he been actuated by purely unselfish and patriotic impulses and considerations, will always cast a heavy blight upon his memory. His ambition twice exposed his country to invasion by foreign foes; and the calamities which followed those invasions, and the blood of two million Frenchmen shed in innumerable conflicts during his stormy career, have shown France the heavy price of military glory.

But it is doubtful whether he was more selfish, or only more able, than the hereditary sovereigns, whom his long spell of success and his energetic movements struck with terror. When he appeared upon the stage of European affairs Europe was encumbered with worn-out forms, the remnants of past institutions; and his mission appears to have been to prepare the way for new and better systems.

In the course of his triumphant marches through Europe, at the head of kings and princes and powerful chiefs, all sprung from

the ranks of the people, Napoleon diffused certain ideas of equal political rights which have since become the basis of political freedom. Thus, though his views and aims were selfish and personal, he was the instrument for the achievement of much good which he did not intend to accomplish. Though his melancholy fall was attributable to his faults and errors, his brilliant and extraordinary success was equally the natural result of profound knowledge, diligent industry and irresistible will.

The spell of this wonderful man was so great that he still filled the world with the echoes of his name at a distance of almost four thousand miles from Europe. His great image loomed afar, from his rocky islet abode in the South Atlantic, an object of terror to his foes and of hope to his friends and adherents. His death hurried some of his partisans into rash and desperate enterprises; while it released his enemies from a salutary fear, and left them free to devote themselves less prudently and less reservedly to their reactionary and disastrous inclinations.

After Napoleon's remains had rested nineteen years in their lonely tomb at St. Helena, a more generous spirit animated the British government, and the fallen Emperor's remains were permitted to be conveyed by a guard of honor to Paris. The remains were exhumed under the direction of the British authorities in St. Helena, October 15, 1840, and were placed in an additional leaden coffin inclosed in an ebony sarcophagus sent for the purpose by the French government. The French squadron conveying the remains sailed from St. Helena, October 18, 1840, for Havre, whence they were conveyed up the Seine to Paris, where they arrived December 15, 1840, and were interred in the Hotel des Invalides, in the presence of thousands of Napoleon's old veterans and a vast concourse of people, who regarded the mortal remains of the illustrious dead with an affection and reverence almost amounting to adoration. A monument in the Hotel des Invalides now marks the resting-place of all that was mortal of Napoleon Bonaparte.

SECTION II.—PROGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.



AFTER the National Constitution, by receiving the approval of the people of the requisite number of States, had become the Supreme Law of the land, George Washington was chosen, by the unanimous vote of the Electors, the first President of the United States, and John Adams, of Massachusetts, was elected Vice President.

Edmund Randolph, who was no strong adherent of Washington, afterward wrote to him thus: "The Constitution would never have been adopted but from a knowledge that you had once sanctioned it, and an expectation that you would execute it." Lafayette at once wrote from Paris: "The Constitution satisfies many of our desires; but I am much mistaken if there are not some points that would be perilous had not the United States the happiness of possessing their guardian angel, who will lead them to whatever still remains to be done before reaching perfection."

Washington consented to what he called "this last great sacrifice." He wrote in his diary: "I bade adieu to Mount Vernon and to domestic felicity; and, with a mind oppressed with more anxious and painful sensations than I have words to express, set out with the best disposition to render service to my country in obedience to its call, but with less hope of answering its expectations."

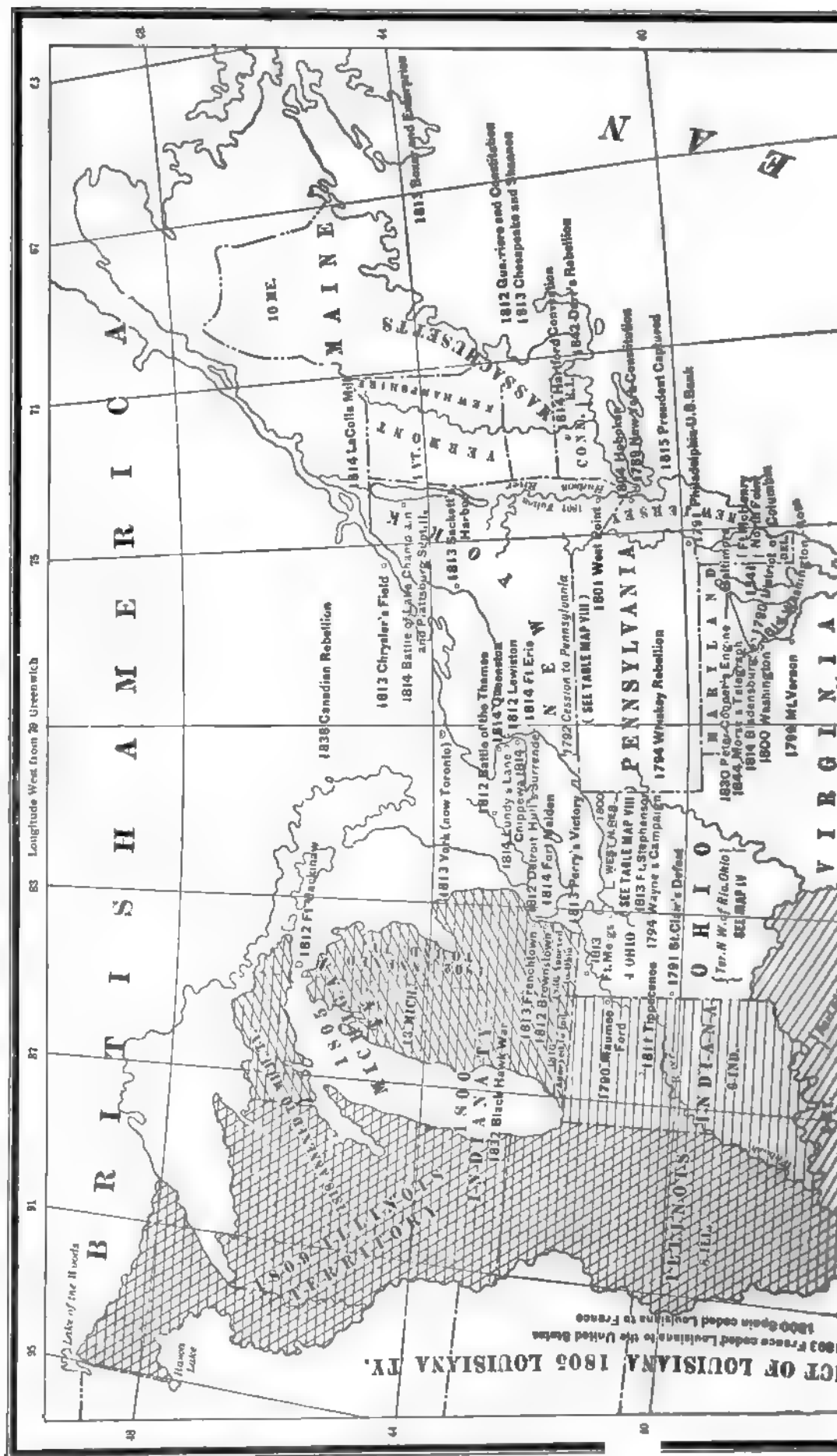
After a month's delay the two Houses of Congress had been organized in New York City, and John Adams took his place as Vice President a few days before Washington's arrival. Washington's journey from Mount Vernon to New York was a continued ovation. At Trenton he passed under a beautiful arch bearing the inscription: "The defender of the mothers will be the protector of the daughters."

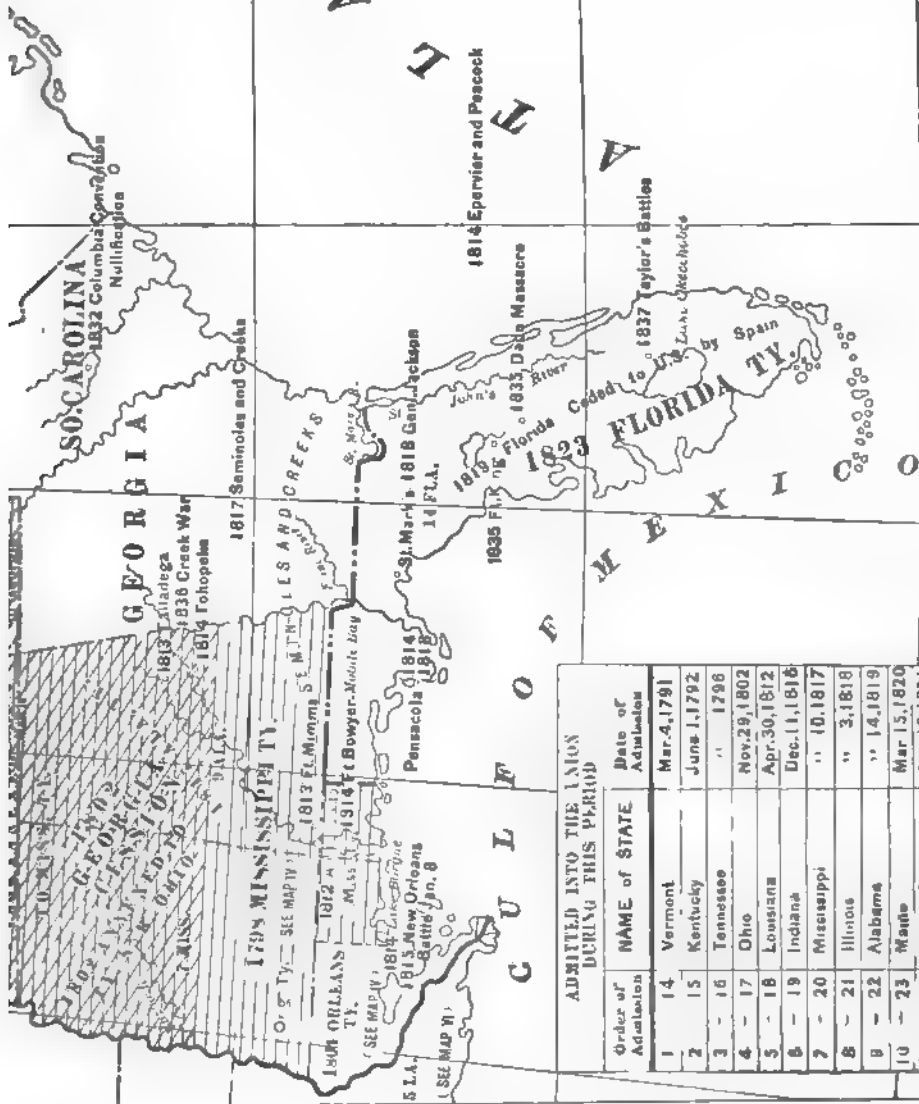
The inauguration of Washington took place on the 30th of April, 1789, in New

York City, in the presence of an immense body of spectators. Washington was well-aware that it was far more difficult to set the new National Constitution in operation than had been the work of its formation. He felt that it was still an untried instrument, and that time could only tell its efficiency. In his inaugural address he said: "It would be peculiarly improper to omit in this first official act my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being Who rules over the universe, Who presides in the councils of nations, and Whose providential aids can supply every human defect, that His benediction may consecrate to the liberties and happiness of the people of the United States a government instituted by themselves for these essential purposes, and may enable every instrument employed in its administration to execute with success the functions allotted to his charge."

The First Congress under the new Constitution established three Executive Departments—War, Treasury and Foreign Affairs—the heads of which were to be styled Secretaries, instead of Ministers, as in other countries, and who were to constitute the President's Cabinet, and could be appointed and dismissed at his pleasure. A national judiciary was established, consisting of a Supreme Court, having a Chief Justice and several Associate Justices, and Circuit and District Courts, which had jurisdiction over certain specified cases. Henry Knox was appointed Secretary of War; Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; and Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of Foreign Affairs. John Jay was appointed Chief Justice.

During the second session of the First Congress, early in 1790, on the recommendation of Mr. Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, the National Government assumed the public debt contracted during the War of the Revolution, and the debts which the several States had incurred dur-





ADMITTED INTO THE UNION DURING THIS PERIOD		
Order of Admission	NAME of STATE	Date of Admission
1 - 14	Vermont	Mar. 3, 1791
2 - 15	Kentucky	June 1, 1792
3 - 16	Tennessee	" 1796
4 - 17	Ohio	Nov. 29, 1802
5 - 18	Louisiana	Apr. 30, 1812
6 - 19	Indiana	Dec. 11, 1816
7 - 20	Mississippi	" 10, 1817
8 - 21	Illinois	" 3, 1818
9 - 22	Alabama	" 14, 1819
10 - 23	Maine	Mar. 15, 1820
11 - 24	Missouri	Aug. 10, 1821
12 - 25	Arkansas	June 15, 1836
13 - 26	Michigan	Jan. 26, 1837
14 - 27	Florida	Mar. 3, 1845

ADMINISTRATIONS DURING THIS PERIOD		
No.	Name of President	Time Period of Service
1	George Washington	1789-1797
2	John Adams	1797-1801
3	Thomas Jefferson	1801-1809
4	James Madison	1809-1817
5	James Monroe	1817-1825
6	John Q. Adams	1825-1829
7	Andrew Jackson	1829-1837
8	Martin Van Buren	1837-1841
9	Wm. H. Harrison	1841
10	John Tyler	1841-1845

* President Pro tem of the Senate - would have become acting president in case of the death of the president

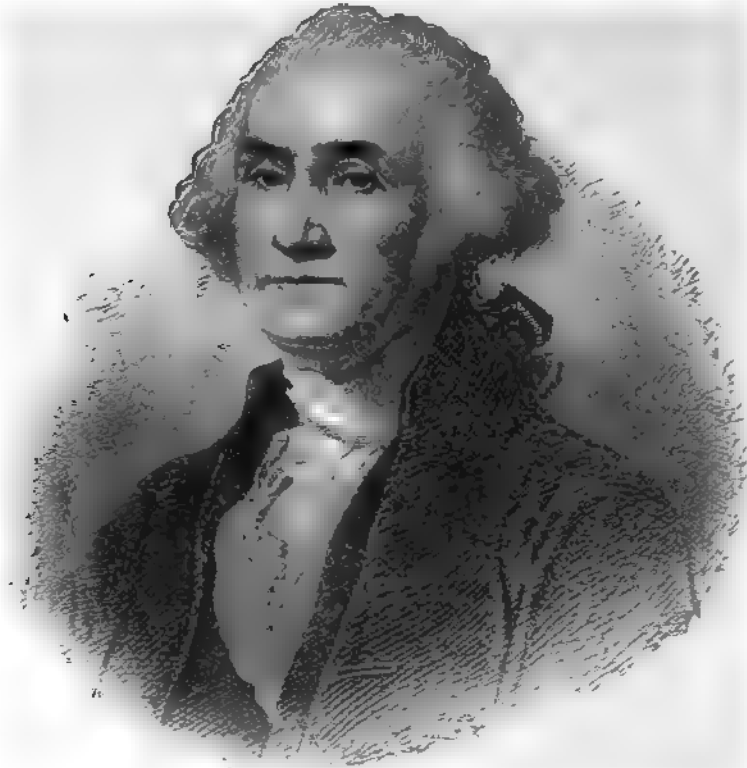
East from Washington

West from Washington

ing the same period. Congress, during that session, passed an act to remove the seat of the National Government from New York to Philadelphia, where it should continue until the expiration of ten years from that date, when it should be removed to a suitable place on the Potomac. Agreeably to the recommendation of Mr. Hamilton, Congress, during its third session, in 1791, authorized the establishment of a national

the Alleghany mountains, which was embraced in the North-west Territory and the Territory South-west of the Ohio, was already becoming peopled.

In the summer of 1790, the Indians north-west of the Ohio, encouraged by British emissaries, began a war against the United States. After vainly attempting to secure peace, the President sent General Harmer with a considerable force against the Indians.



George Washington

bank and a mint for coinage, both of which were located at Philadelphia.

Already Rhode Island and North Carolina had become members of the Union by adopting the National Constitution; and the number of States was further increased by the admission of Vermont, in February, 1791, and Kentucky, in June, 1792, into the Union. The vast wilderness west of

In October, 1790, Harmer was severely defeated by the Indians in two battles near the present town of Fort Wayne, in Indiana. A year later General St. Clair, Governor of the North-west Territory, marched against the Indians, but was defeated on the 4th of November, 1791, and driven back with the loss of six hundred men. General Wayne, who succeeded St. Clair, defeated

the Indians so badly, on the 20th of August, 1794, near the present Maumee City, Ohio, that they humbly sued for peace. In August, 1795, a treaty was concluded at Greenville, by which the Indians ceded to the United States a vast extent of territory. From this time until the commencement of the war of 1812 with Great Britain the North-western Indians lived at peace with the United States.

Before the second Presidential election took place, in the fall of 1792, two political parties had been organized. The one, called the Republican or Democratic party, headed by Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State, advocated the distribution of power among the States and the people. The other, called the Federalist party, headed by Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, advocated the concentration of great power in the National Government. In the election of 1792 Washington was again the unanimous choice of the Electors for the office of President of the Republic, and John Adams was reelected Vice-President.

The Republican party sympathized with the Revolutionary party in France, which had executed King Louis XVI., abolished monarchy and established the political equality of all classes in that country. The French Republic sent, as its minister to the United States, M. Genet, who, soon after his arrival in America, fitted out privateers in American ports to prey upon the commerce of England, Spain and Holland, against which countries Republican France had declared war. When Washington, anxious to keep the United States free from the complications of European politics, issued a proclamation of neutrality, declaring it to be the duty and the interest of the people of the United States to observe a perfectly neutral attitude in regard to the European struggle, Genet tried to arouse the American people against their Government; but, at the request of Washington, the French Republic recalled its imprudent minister, and sent M. Fouchet in his place.

In the war between England and Revo-

lutionary France, the Federalist party, shocked by the excesses of the French Jacobins, sided with England, while the Republicans sympathized openly with the French. The feeling between the two parties in the United States was most bitter. The Republicans reproached the Federalists as monarchists, while the Federalists denounced the Republicans as anarchists. An ultra faction of the Republicans were called *Democrats*, and the Federalists often applied that name to the entire Republican party, though Jefferson and his followers only called themselves Republicans.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

[From the painting in possession of Chamber of Commerce, New York.]

Alexander Hamilton had no confidence in popular government. Had it not been for Jefferson and his followers the government of the United States would have been very different from what it now is. The political contests of that day were really contests between the principles of kingly and popular government. Jefferson stated that at dinner parties of that day he was generally the only one who had full confidence in republican institutions.

Hamilton was not only a monarchist, but

avowed himself in favor of a monarchy with corruption. On one occasion, in April, 1791, Mr. Adams remarked concerning the British Constitution: "Purge it of its corruption and give to its popular branch equality of representation, and it would be the most perfect constitution ever devised by the wit of man." Thereupon Hamilton remarked: "Purge it of its corruption and give to its popular branch equality of representation, and it would become an impracticable government. As it stands at present, with all its supposed defects, it is the most perfect government which ever existed."

Mr. Adams himself had during his mission to England imbibed monarchical notions, and was for that reason taken up by the Federalists as a candidate in his absence. Gouverneur Morris was also a strong monarchist, and intensely hostile to the French Revolution. General Schuyler also asserted that hereditary descent was as likely to produce good magistrates as election. Alexander Hamilton on one occasion remarked that the Constitution of the United States was "a shilly shally thing, of mere milk and water, which can not last, and is only good as a step to something better." He openly declared that "there is no stability, no security in any kind of government but a monarchy." General Knox, President Washington's Secretary of War, at the time of the President's inauguration, swore that our government must be entirely new modeled or it would be knocked to pieces in less than ten years, that he would not give a copper for it as it is at present, and that the President's character, not the written Constitution, kept it together.

President Washington himself was afraid that this government was fast sinking into anarchy. Said a United States Senator of that time: "Ah! things will never go right till you have a President for life and an hereditary Senate."

In 1791 Congress passed an act imposing heavy duties upon liquors distilled in the United States. This measure was very unpopular; and in 1794 the people of Western Pennsylvania rose in arms, resisted the gov-

ernment officers sent to collect the tax, robbed mails, and committed many other outrages. After issuing two proclamations ordering the insurgents to lay down their arms and obey the laws, the President sent General Henry Lee, of Virginia, with a military force sufficient to quell the insurrection. The insurgents immediately submitted, and quiet was restored. This rebellion is known in history as the *Whisky Insurrection*.

Unfriendly relations between the United States and Great Britain threatened to end in war in 1794. The United States accused Great Britain of violating the treaty of 1783, by retaining possession of military posts in the North-west Territory, and by withholding indemnification for negroes carried away at the close of the Revolution; and complaint was also made that British emissaries had excited the Indians of the North-west to hostilities against the American people, that to retaliate on France American vessels had been seized by British cruisers, and that American seamen had been impressed into the British naval service. Great Britain complained that the United States did not comply with treaty stipulations respecting the property of Tories, and also in relation to the recovery of debts contracted in England before the Revolution. To settle these difficulties, John Jay was appointed a special envoy to Great Britain. He negotiated a treaty which was violently opposed in the United States; but it was finally ratified by the United States Senate, on the 24th of June, 1794.

For several years American commerce in the Mediterranean sea had suffered from the depredations of Algerine pirates, who seized the merchandise and held the seamen as slaves for the purpose of obtaining ransom money. To put a stop to these outrages, Congress, in 1794, made appropriations for the organization of a navy. In 1795 the United States was obliged to make a treaty of peace with the Dey of Algiers, by which an annual tribute was to be paid for the liberation of captive American seamen.

In June, 1796, Tennessee was admitted

into the Union of States. The Presidential campaign of 1796 was an exciting one. The candidate of the Federalists was John Adams, and the nominee of the Republicans was Thomas Jefferson. Adams was elected President, and Jefferson was chosen Vice-President.

The two parties in the United States—Federalist and Republican, French and Anti-French—that distracted the Nation, were never before so bitter toward each other. President Washington wrote: "Until within the last year or two I had no idea that parties would, or even could, go to the length I have been witness to." Congress was a constant battle-ground between the parties. The Federal party was falling into a minority in the House of Representatives, and was in danger of losing its majority in the Senate also. Newspapers, especially those of Philadelphia, carried the hostile notes from Congress to the people, and echoed them back to Congress. It is difficult to convey an idea of the virulence of political writing at that time. Statesmanship gave way to partisanship, love of country to hatred of countrymen. All this rendered the course of the Administration doubtful and dangerous, while demonstrating its wisdom.

President Washington and his Administration were objects of the fiercest assault. The President wrote with natural indignation of the abuse which he had been subjected to, calling himself "no party man," and saying of this abuse "and that, too, in such exaggerated and indecent terms as could scarcely be applied to a Nero, a notorious defaulter, or even to a common pick-pocket."

In the midst of these hostile attacks upon him by the Republican party, Washington issued his immortal *Farewell Address* to the people of the United States, September 17, 1796, in which he made a strong and earnest plea for the Union of the States, and an equally earnest admonition against the violence of party spirit, a thing which he said ought not to be encouraged.

Congress assembled soon afterward, and showed that many of its members were po-

litically unfriendly to the retiring President, during whose wise Administration the machinery of the National Government had been put in motion. When an address of grateful acknowledgment was proposed in the House of Representatives, a man from the President's own State, William B. Giles of Virginia, took exception to the more expressive passages, saying: "If I stand alone in the opinion, I will declare that I am not convinced that the administration of the government for these six years has been wise and firm. I do not regret the President's retiring from office." A number of others assumed the same attitude as Giles, and among them was Andrew Jackson of Tennessee, December, 1796.

The President wrote of himself in January, 1797: "Although he is soon to become a private citizen, his opinions are to be knocked down, and his character reduced as low as they are capable of sinking it." Two months afterward, in the last hours of his Administration, he said: "To the weary traveler, who sees a resting place and is bending his body to lean thereon, I now compare myself; but to be suffered to do this in peace is too much to be endured by some."

Thus Washington finally retired to private life, having done greater things at the head of the government than he had done at the head of the army; and, although he left the Nation distracted with party passion, as he had found it, he also left it with a Constitution in operation, with principles and laws for its action, and on the road to progress and development, a condition in which he had not found it. The day before his retirement from office he thus expressed himself: "I can never believe that Providence, which has guided us so long and through such a labyrinth, will withdraw its protection at this crisis."

In May, 1796, Washington, not as President, but simply as an American, had written a "private letter" to the Emperor Francis II. of Germany, "to recommend Lafayette to the mediation of humanity," and "to entreat that he may be permitted

to come to this country." The effect of this appeal is unknown, but Lafayette was liberated soon afterward.

Mr. Adams was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1797, as second President of the United States. On account of the unfriendly character of the relations between the United States and France, the President summoned Congress to meet in extra session on the 15th of May following. In July, 1797, Congress appointed Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, John Marshall and El-

tions on the part of the United States for war with the French Republic. In May of that year a large provisional army was authorized, and Washington was appointed commander-in-chief. A small naval armament was raised, and hostilities were begun on the ocean. The American schooner *Retaliation* was captured by the French frigate *L'Insurgente*; but the latter was afterwards captured by the American frigate *Constellation*, commanded by Commodore Truxtun. The firm course pursued by the United



John Adams

bridge Gerry envoys to France for the adjustment of all difficulties. The French government refused to receive them until they should pay a large sum of money into the French treasury. This insolent demand was refused with indignation; and two of the envoys, Messrs Pinckney and Marshall, who were Federalists, were ordered to leave France; while Mr. Gerry, who was a Republican, was permitted to remain.

The year 1798 was signalized by prepara-

States government caused the French Directory to propose a settlement of all difficulties between the two nations. The President sent three envoys, who, late in 1799, concluded a treaty of peace with Napoleon Bonaparte, who had a short time previously overthrown the Directory and made himself ruler of France with the title of First Consul.

The Federalist party was greatly weakened by the passage of two extremely unpopu-

ler acts by Congress, and their approval by President Adams. These were the *Alien* and *Sedition Laws*. The Alien Law authorized the President to expel from the United States any alien whose presence he might deem dangerous to the Republic. The Sedition Law authorized the suppression of publications which tended to weaken the authority of the National Government. The Legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky asserted the dangerous doctrine of State Rights by passing, in opposition to the Alien and Sedition Laws, resolutions in which they declared the rights of the States to judge how far the National Government had a right to go.

At the close of 1799 the Nation was called upon to mourn the loss of the illustrious Washington, who died at Mt. Vernon on the 14th of December, 1799. In the summer of 1800 the seat of the government of the United States was removed from Philadelphia to the new city of Washington, in the District of Columbia.

In conversation President Adams remarked with some profanity concerning his opponents: "You see that an elective government will not do." He also said: "Republicanism must be disgraced, sir." A prominent man of the time remarked that the best thing the French could do was to pray for the restoration of their monarch; whereupon another remarked: "Then the best thing we could do, I suppose, would be to pray for the establishment of monarchy in the United States." The other then replied: "Our people are not yet ripe for it, but it is the best thing we can come to, and we shall come to it."

In conversation with Jefferson, President Adams also remarked that no republic could ever last which had not a Senate, and a Senate deeply and strongly rooted, strong enough to bear up against all popular storms and passions; that it was the merest chimera imaginable to trust to a popular assembly for the preservation of our liberties; that anarchy did more mischief in one night than tyranny in an age; and that anarchy had done more harm in France in one night than

all the despotism of their kings had ever done in twenty or thirty years.

Early in 1800 the St. Andrews Club of New York—all Scotch Tories—gave a public dinner; and Alexander Hamilton was one of the guests. After dinner the first toast was: "The President of the United States." It was drunk without particular approbation. The next toast was: "George the Third." Hamilton arose and insisted on a bumper and three cheers, whereupon the entire company rose and gave three cheers with a will.

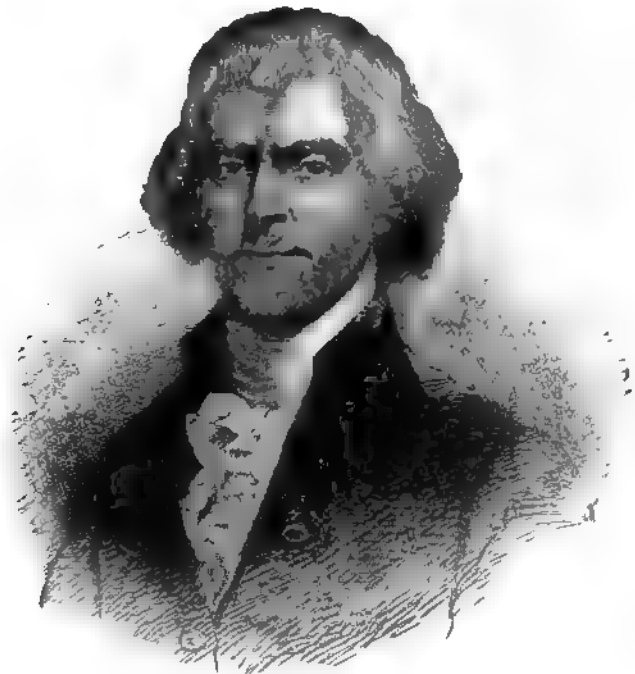
In 1800 the Federalists nominated John Adams and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney for the Presidency, while the Republicans nominated Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. This time the Republican party was successful; but, as Jefferson and Burr had each the same number of votes, the election was carried to the House of Representatives, when, after thirty-five balloting, Jefferson was chosen President, and Burr was declared to be elected Vice-President.

Mr. Jefferson was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1801; and he commenced the administration of affairs with great vigor and ability. In 1802 Ohio was admitted into the family of States; and in 1803 the United States purchased from France, for fifteen millions of dollars, the immense territory of Louisiana, then extending from the Mississippi river to the Rocky Mountains, and from the British possessions to the Gulf of Mexico.

The insolent conduct of the piratical Barbary States of Northern Africa caused the United States to stop paying tribute to them in 1801; whereupon the Bashaw, or ruler of Tripoli, declared war against the United States. The American frigate *George Washington*, under the command of Captain William Bainbridge, was sent to the Mediterranean sea to protect American commerce; and in 1803 a small American squadron under Commodore Preble appeared before Tripoli, where one of his vessels, the *Philadelphia*, commanded by Captain William Bainbridge, grounded, and was captured by the Tripolitans. In February,

1804, seventy-six Americans, with Lieutenant Stephen Decatur at their head, went into the harbor of Tripoli, boarded the *Philadelphia*, drove the pirates from her deck, and then, under a heavy cannonade from the shore, set the vessel on fire. Decatur did not lose a single man in this bold exploit. A severe naval battle was fought on the 3d of August, 1804, which resulted in an American victory; and the city of Tripoli suffered heavy bombardments from

of the people of the United States, secretly organized a military expedition in the Ohio region, with the professed object of establishing an independent empire in Northern Mexico, with himself as Emperor. Being suspected of the design of separating the country west of the Alleghany mountains from the Union, he was arrested and brought to trial on a charge of treason, at Richmond, Virginia, in 1807; but, his guilt not being proven, he was acquitted. The trial was



Th. Jefferson

the American squadron. The Bashaw of Tripoli, alarmed at the rapid progress of the victors, made peace with Mr. Lear, the American consul-general on the Mediterranean, June 4, 1805.

In the autumn of 1804 Jefferson was re-elected President; and George Clinton, of New York, was chosen Vice President. The great South-west was rapidly becoming peopled. In 1806 Aaron Burr, who, by killing Alexander Hamilton in a duel, in July, 1804, had come to be detested by a majority

held before John Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States.

The experiments of Robert Fulton, a native of Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, in the application of steam to purposes of navigation, resulted in success in a voyage from New York to Albany, in August, 1807.

Europe was still convulsed by the wars resulting from the French Revolution; and at this time the greater part of Continental Europe was under the control of the powerful and victorious Napoleon Bonaparte, who

had been created Emperor of the French in 1804. While France was triumphant on land, Great Britain, which was engaged in a long and fierce war with her old enemy, was undisputed mistress of the seas.

The measures of the two belligerent powers for each other's destruction produced great injury to the commerce of the United States. For the purpose of destroying the commerce of France, Great Britain, by an



AARON BURR.

order-in-council, declared the coast of Continental Europe from the mouth of the Elbe, in Germany, to Brest, in France, to be in a state of blockade. Napoleon retaliated by issuing a decree at Berlin, in November, 1806, declaring the blockade of the ports of the British Islands. American vessels were seized by both English and French cruisers, and American commerce was swept from the ocean. In January, 1807, England, by an order-in-council, prohibited the coast trade with France. The American merchants, whose interests were injured by the measures of the two belligerent powers, demanded redress and protection; and great excitement prevailed in the United States. France and England still continued their desperate commercial game, regardless of the rights of neutral powers. On the 11th of

November, 1807, Great Britain, by an order-in-council, forbade neutral nations from trading with France or her colonies unless they first paid tribute to England. In retaliation, Napoleon, by a decree issued at Milan, on the 17th of December, 1807, forbade trade with England or her colonies, and authorized the confiscation of any vessel that had submitted to English search or paid English tribute.

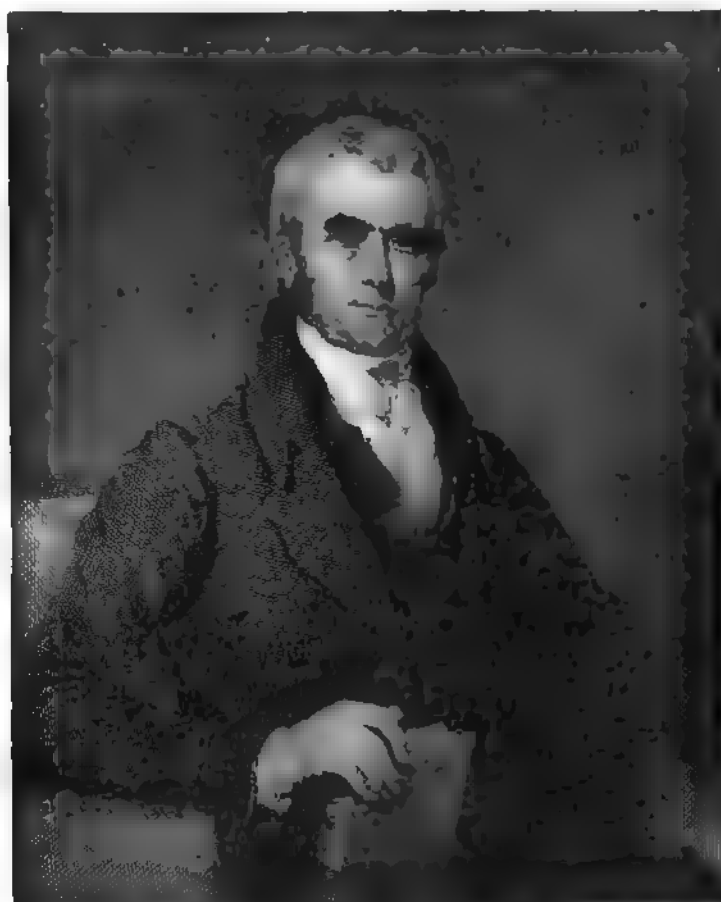
Great Britain, denying that any of her subjects could become citizens or subjects of any other nation, claimed the right to search American vessels, and take from them her native born subjects for her navy. This right was denied by the United States. On the 22d of June, 1807, an event occurred which increased the excitement in the United States, and created intense indignation against Great Britain. Four men on board the American frigate *Chesapeake*, being claimed as deserters from the British armed ship *Melampus*, and Commodore Barron of the *Chesapeake* refusing to surrender them, the *Chesapeake* was attacked by the British frigate *Leopard* off the coast of Virginia. Taken completely by surprise, the *Chesapeake* surrendered after having lost eighteen men killed and wounded. The four men were taken on board the *Leopard*, and the *Chesapeake* returned to Hampton. The matter was investigated, when it was proven that three of the seamen were native Americans, and that the fourth, after being impressed into the British service, had deserted.

In July, 1807, the President issued a proclamation ordering all British armed vessels to leave the waters of the United States, and forbidding any to enter until Great Britain should render full satisfaction for the outrage upon the *Chesapeake*; and on the 22d of December, 1807, the National Congress decreed an embargo, which prevented both American and foreign vessels from leaving American ports. Because the embargo was very unpopular in the United States, especially with the merchants, to whose interests it was very injurious, and because it failed to obtain justice from France and England, it was repealed on the 1st of

March, 1809, when all commercial intercourse with those countries was forbidden until they should either modify or rescind their injurious measures.

The Presidential election of 1808 resulted in the choice of the Republican candidate, James Madison, of Virginia, for President, and the reelection of George Clinton as Vice-President.

Soon after his inauguration, President Madison was assured by Mr. Erskine, the British ambassador at Washington, that a special envoy from Great Britain would soon make his appearance in the United States to negotiate for a settlement of all the subjects of dispute between the two governments. Relying upon this assurance, the President proclaimed a renewal of commer-



CHIEF JUSTICE JOHN MARSHALL.

Mr. Madison entered upon the duties of President of the United States on the 4th of March, 1809, when the relations of the Republic with England and France were of the most unfriendly character. On account of the unfavorable aspect of affairs, Congress, at the summons of the President, was assembled in extra session on the 22d of May.

cial intercourse with England; but the British government disavowed Erskine's act, and the President again proclaimed non-intercourse.

Both France and England continued their desperate commercial game for the ruin of each other, regardless of the interests of other nations. Great Britain refused to rescind her obnoxious orders-in-council, and

Bonaparte firmly adhered to his Berlin and Milan decrees, so injurious to American commerce; and American vessels continued to be seized by both English and French cruisers. In 1811 Great Britain went so far as to send armed vessels to the coast of the United States to seize American merchant vessels and to take them to England as lawful prizes.

On the 16th of May, 1811, an event occurred which increased the bitter feeling in the



ROBERT FULTON

United States against England. The British sloop-of-war *Little Belt*, Captain Bingham, was met and hailed by the American frigate *President*, Captain Rodgers, off the coast of Virginia. The *Little Belt* immediately answered by a cannon-shot. A short engagement ensued; and when the *Little Belt* had thirty-two men killed and wounded, her commander gave Captain Rodgers a satisfactory answer. Both governments approved the acts of their respective officers.

During the spring of 1811 the Indians of the North-west, led by Tecumseh, a famous Shawnoese chief, and instigated by British emissaries, began a war against the United States for the purpose of expelling the white people from the country north of the

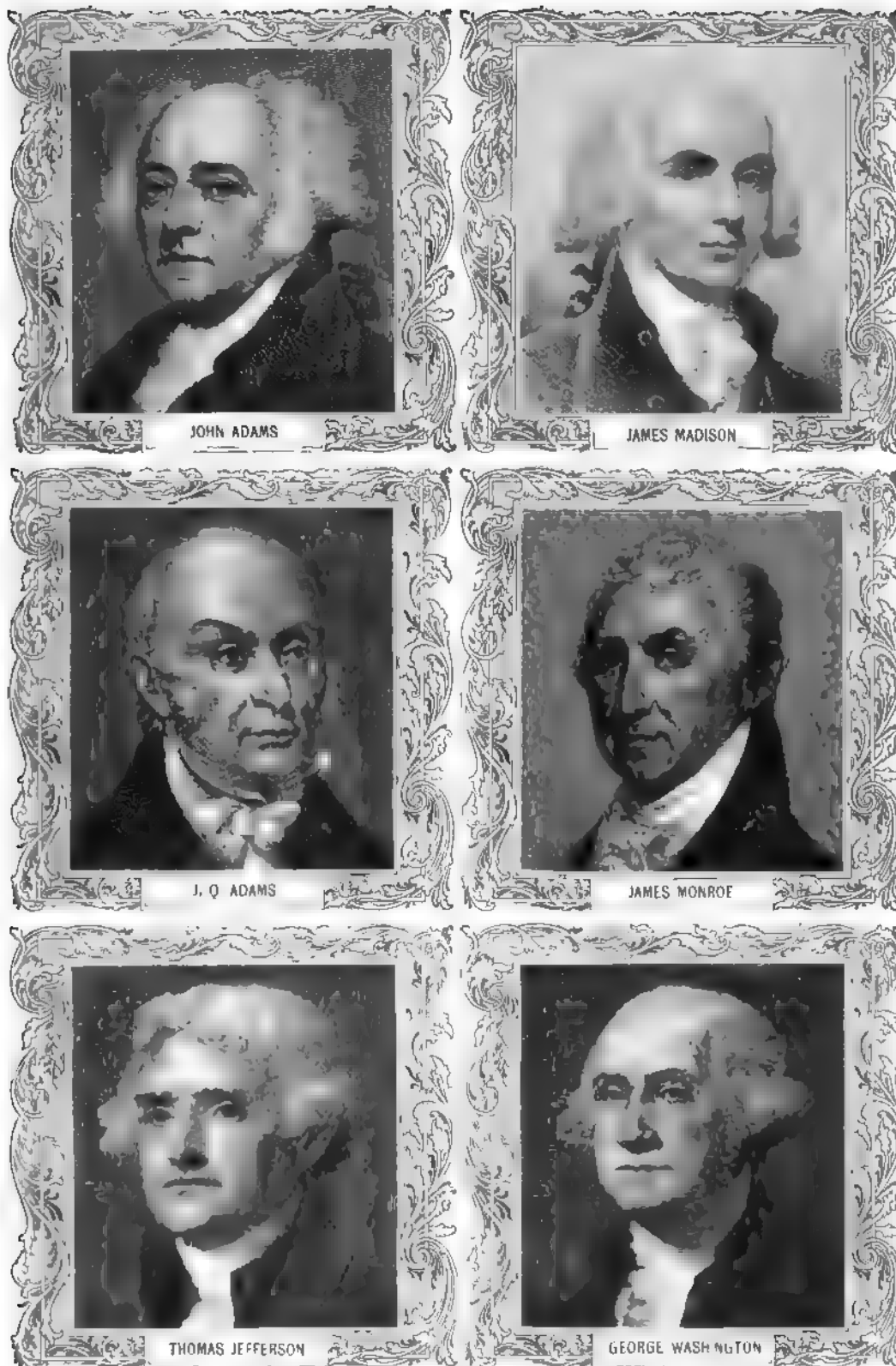
Ohio river. In the autumn of the same year General William Henry Harrison, Governor of Indiana Territory, led about two thousand troops up the Wabash river to the mouth of Tippecanoe creek, where the Prophet, a brother of Tecumseh, had collected many Indian warriors. The Prophet proposed a conference for peace; but Harrison, suspecting treachery, caused his troops to sleep on their arms that night, November 6, 1811. Before daylight the next morning the Indians attacked Harrison's camp; but, after a desperate conflict, which lasted until dawn, they were repulsed. This engagement is known as the battle of Tippecanoe, and it occurred on the 7th of November, 1811.

WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

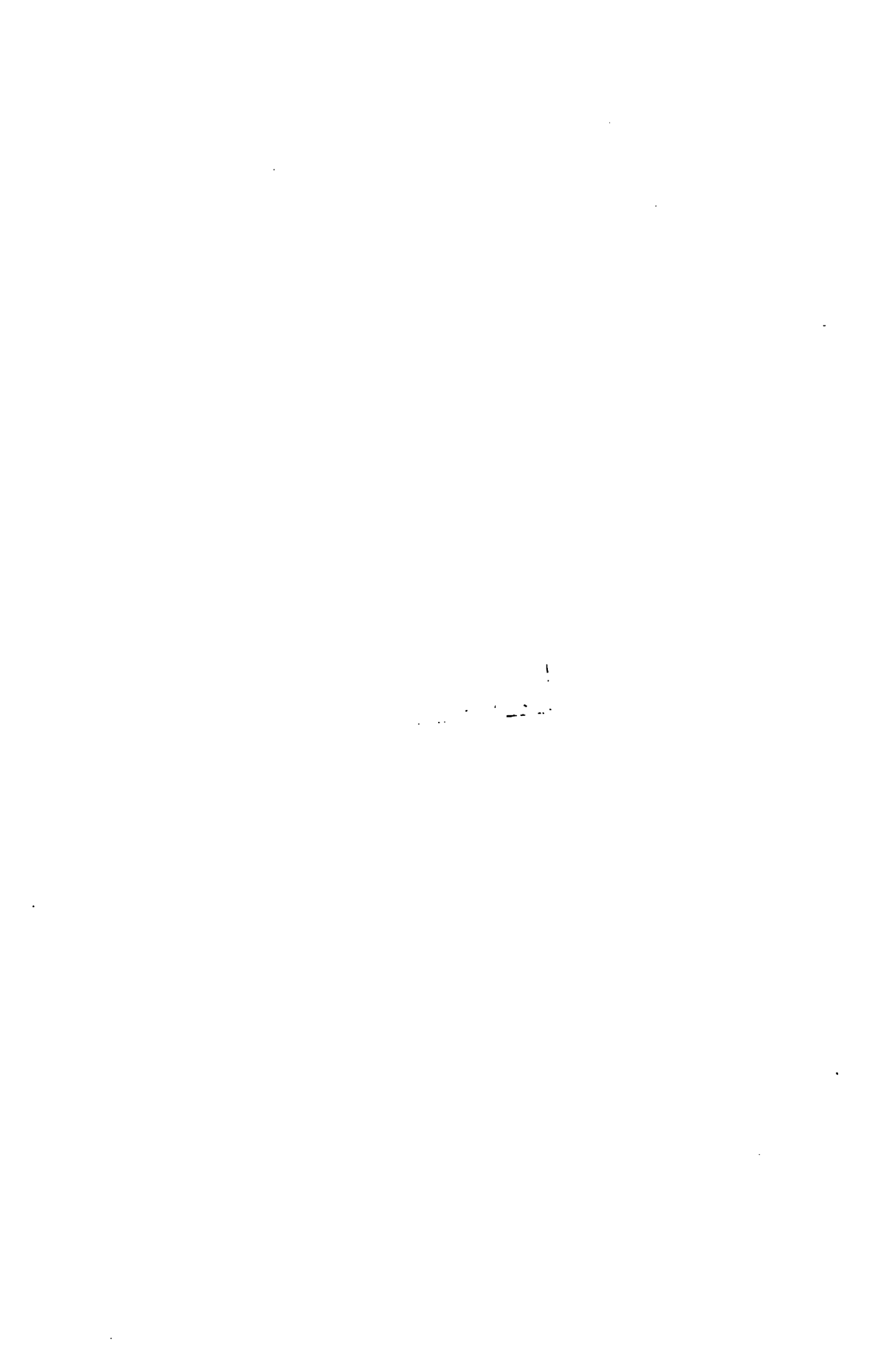
All efforts made by the United States government for a peaceful settlement of the difficulties with England having failed, the President of the United States, by authority of Congress, issued a proclamation, on the 19th of June, 1812, declaring war against Great Britain. The contest which then began is known as the *War of 1812*. Congress made appropriations for carrying on the war, and authorized the President to enlist twenty-five thousand men, to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers, and to call out one hundred thousand militia for the defense of the sea-coast and the frontiers.

General Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, was appointed commander-in-chief. The other leading generals were James Wilkinson, Wade Hampton, William Hull and Joseph Bloomfield. These officers had all served in the War of the Revolution.

The war commenced with an invasion of Canada, from Detroit, in Michigan Territory, in July, 1812, by about two thousand American troops under the command of General William Hull, Governor of Michigan Territory. When informed that Fort Mackinaw, a strong American post in the North-west, had been surprised and captured by a party of British and Indians on the 17th of July, and that a small American force under Major Van Horne had been defeated on the



THE EARLIEST PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.



River Raisin on the 5th of August, Hull hastily returned to Detroit. Sir Isaac Brock, at the head of thirteen hundred British and Indians, pursued Hull, and, appearing before Detroit, demanded the surrender of that post and Hull's army, threatening in case of a refusal to allow the Indians the unrestrained exercise of their barbarous system of warfare. Hull, greatly alarmed, complied with the demand of the British general; and his army, and the fort at Detroit and the

dred men under Sir Isaac Brock, the British commander-in-chief, and when many of the American militia refused to go to the relief of their countrymen, the Americans were defeated with the loss of one thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners. Among those who were taken prisoners by the enemy were Colonel Winfield Scott and Captain John Ellis Wool, who had distinguished themselves by their gallantry. Among the killed on the side of the British



James Madison

Michigan Territory, fell into the hands of the enemy.

After Hull's surrender at Detroit, the Americans made an attempt to invade Canada on the Niagara frontier. On the 13th of October, 1812, a party of Americans crossed the Niagara river into Canada to attack the British at Queenstown. The invaders captured a battery and made themselves masters of Queenstown Heights; but when the enemy were reinforced by six hun-

was Sir Isaac Brock, their able and heroic commander-in-chief.

The Americans, though defeated on land, were successful on the sea. On the 13th of August, 1812, the American frigate *Essex*, Captain David Porter, defeated and captured the British sloop-of-war *Alert*. On the 19th of the same month, August, 1812, the United States frigate *Constitution*, Captain Isaac Hull, defeated, captured and burned the British frigate *Guerriere* off the Gulf of

St. Lawrence. On the 18th of October, 1812, the United States sloop-of-war *Wasp*, Captain Jacob Jones, compelled the British brig *Frolic* to surrender, after a severe conflict off the coast of North Carolina; but in the afternoon of the same day both the *Wasp* and the *Frolic* were taken by the British ship *Poitiers*. On the 25th of October the American frigate *United States*, Captain Stephen Decatur, captured the British frigate *Macedonian* off the Azores Islands. On the 29th of December the American frigate *Constitution*, Captain William Bainbridge, compelled the British frigate *Java* to strike her colors, after a desperate fight of three hours off the coast of Brazil.

The Federalists were violently opposed to the war; but they failed in their endeavors to make it unpopular, as the war spirit of the great majority of the people of the United States was fully demonstrated in the autumn of 1812 by the reëlection of Madison as President, with Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, as Vice-President.

The Americans had organized three armies on the Canada frontier for the campaign of 1813. The Army of the West, under General William Henry Harrison, was near the western end of Lake Erie; the Army of the Centre, under General Henry Dearborn, the Commander-in-chief, was on the Niagara frontier; and the Army of the North, under General Wade Hampton, was near Lake Champlain.

The people of the West were resolved to recover Michigan Territory, and so many volunteers from Ohio and Kentucky offered their services that General Harrison found himself obliged to issue an order against further enlistments. On the 10th of January, 1813, General Winchester, with eight hundred Kentuckians, reached the Maumee Rapids; and, after a portion of this force had driven the British from Frenchtown, on the River Raisin, in Michigan, on the 18th of January, Winchester arrived with the remainder of the troops on the 20th, January, 1813. General Proctor, with fifteen hundred British and Indians, attacked the Americans at Frenchtown on the 22d of

January; and Winchester surrendered on condition that his troops should be protected from the Indians; but Proctor, in disregard of his promise, marched away, leaving the sick and wounded Americans to be massacred by the Indians. From that time the war-cry of the Kentuckians was: "Remember the River Raisin!"

In February, 1813, General Harrison built Fort Meigs, at the Maumee Rapids, where he was besieged at the beginning of May, 1813, by two thousand British and Indians under Proctor and Tecumseh, who were finally driven away on the 5th of May, when Harrison was reinforced by a body of Kentuckians under General Green Clay. On the 21st of July, 1813, about four thousand British and Indians under Proctor and Tecumseh again besieged Fort Meigs; but the garrison, then under the command of General Clay, repulsed the enemy and compelled them to retire.

After their second repulse before Fort Meigs, Proctor and Tecumseh marched against Fort Stephenson, at Lower Sandusky, which they attacked on the 2d of August; but the garrison of one hundred and fifty men, under Major Croghan, a gallant officer only twenty-one years of age, bravely resisted the assaults of the enemy, who were at last obliged to flee in confusion.

During the summer the Americans constructed, at Erie, in Pennsylvania, a squadron of nine vessels, carrying fifty-five guns, which they placed under the command of Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry. The British had prepared a squadron of six vessels, carrying sixty-three guns, commanded by Commodore Barclay. A terrible battle was fought between these two squadrons near the west end of Lake Erie, on the 10th of September, 1813. Each squadron had about five hundred men. During the battle, which began about noon, Perry was obliged to abandon his flag-ship, the *Lawrence*, and to transfer his flag to another ship, in the midst of a severe fire from the enemy. Such terrible broadsides were poured upon the enemy's fleet that at four o'clock in the afternoon every British vessel had surren-



ANDREW JACKSON.

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the President's message to Congress, and is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

dered to Perry. Perry's dispatch to General Harrison was: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

After the victory on Lake Erie, Perry's fleet conveyed General Harrison and his army across the lake to Canada. Harrison advanced upon Fort Malden, which he found deserted. He pursued and overtook the fleeing British and Indians under Proctor and Tecumseh; and, at the Moravian Town, on the Thames, he annihilated the whole force of the enemy on the 5th of October, 1813. Tecumseh was among the killed. The consequences of this brilliant victory were the recovery of Michigan and the termination of the war in the Northwest.

On the 27th of April, 1813, General Dearborn, after being conveyed across Lake Ontario in Commodore Chauncey's fleet, landed with seventeen hundred troops at York, now Toronto, the Capital of Upper Canada, and an important depot of British supplies. The place was immediately abandoned by the enemy, who blew up their magazine, thus killing two hundred Americans, among whom was the gallant General Zebulon N. Pike, who led the troops against the town.

On the 27th of May the army under Dearborn and the fleet under Chauncey attacked the British at Fort George, in Canada, at the mouth of the Niagara river, and drove them westward for many miles. On the night of the 6th of June the enemy were repulsed in a sudden attack upon the pursuing Americans, at Stony Creek; but Generals Chandler and Winder, the American commanders, were taken prisoners.

On the 29th of May, 1813, Sir George Prevost, with one thousand British soldiers, landed at Sackett's Harbor; but they were repulsed in an attack upon the town by the American militia under General Jacob Brown and compelled to return hastily to their ships. In August Dearborn was succeeded in command by General James Wilkinson, who, with seven thousand troops, went down the St. Lawrence in boats, early in November, for the purpose of attacking Montreal. Wilkinson

landed troops near Williamsburg, on the Canada shore of the St. Lawrence, a little below Ogdensburg, where an indecisive action, known as the *Battle of Chrysler's Field*, was fought with the enemy on the 11th of November, 1813. Wilkinson proceeded farther down the river; but when General Wade Hampton refused to coöperate with him he relinquished his intention of attacking Montreal, and went into winter-quarters at French Mills.

General George McClure, who then commanded American troops on the Niagara frontier, was so hard pressed by the enemy that he destroyed Fort George and the neighboring village of Newark on the 10th of December, 1813; and on the 12th he fled to Fort Niagara, on the New York side of the Niagara river. The British and Indians crossed the river, captured Fort Niagara on the 29th of December, and laid six towns, including Buffalo, in ashes.

In the meantime trouble had arisen in the South, where the Creek Indians, instigated by Tecumseh, had commenced a fierce war against the white people. On the 30th of August, 1813, the Creeks surprised and destroyed Fort Mimms, on the Alabama river, and put to death four hundred men, women and children, who had sought refuge within its walls. This atrocious deed aroused the indignation of the white people. General Andrew Jackson marched into the Creek country, at the head of two thousand men, chiefly Tennesseans; and, in a series of conflicts, beginning in the early part of November, 1813, and ending with the battle of Tohopeka, or Great Horse Shoe, at the close of March, 1814, the Creeks were so thoroughly defeated, and their power was so completely broken, that they were compelled to accept a humiliating peace.

The ocean was the theater of desperate engagements in 1813. On the 24th of February the American sloop-of-war *Hornet*, Captain James Lawrence, captured the British brig *Peacock* off the coast of Jamaica, after a sharp action of fifteen minutes. The *Peacock* sunk soon after the fight, carrying with her to the bottom of the sea nine Brit-

ish and three American seamen. Captain Lawrence, soon after his return to the United States, was promoted to the command of the frigate *Chesapeake*; and on the 1st of June he was defeated and killed, after a bloody struggle of fifteen minutes with the British frigate *Shannon* off Boston harbor. Forty-eight of the officers and crew of the *Chesapeake* were killed, and ninety-eight wounded. As the heroic Lawrence was carried below he exclaimed: "Don't give up the ship!" The American brig *Argus*, Captain Allen, after capturing many British vessels off the English coast, was herself captured, on the 14th of August, 1813, by the British brig *Pelican*. On the 5th of September, 1813, the American brig *Enterprise*, Lieutenant Burrows, captured the British brig *Boxer* off Portland, Maine. The commanders of both vessels were killed; and their remains were interred, with military honors, in one grave, in Portland.

During the spring and summer of 1813 Lewistown, on Delaware bay, and Havre de Grace, Frenchtown, Fredericktown and Georgetown, on Chesapeake bay, were plundered and burned by a British squadron under the command of the infamous Admiral Cockburn. After being repulsed in attacks upon Norfolk and Portsmouth, Virginia, in June, 1813, and after committing great outrages at Hampton, Cockburn carried many negroes away from the Carolina coasts, and sold them in the West-Indies.

On the 5th of May, 1814, the town of Oswego, in New York, on Lake Ontario, after a fierce engagement, was captured by the British, who, however, withdrew from the town two days afterward, May 7, 1814.

On the 3d of July, 1814, the American army under General Jacob Brown, on the western frontier of New York, crossed the Niagara, with General Winfield Scott and General Ripley, and captured Fort Erie on the same day. Brown advanced northward, along the west bank of the Niagara river; and, on the 5th of July, 1814, he gained a brilliant victory at Chippewa over the British army under General Riall.

The British army, under the command of

Lieutenant-General Drummond, advanced toward the Niagara, and, at sunset on the 25th of July, 1814, met the American army under General Brown at Lundy's Lane, near the thundering cataract of Niagara, where a sanguinary battle ensued, which ended at midnight without a decisive result. Each party had lost over eight hundred men. Generals Brown and Scott, the American commanders, were both wounded. On the 26th, July, 1814, the American army retired to Fort Erie.

On the 15th of August the British army under Drummond attempted to take Fort Erie by assault, but was repulsed with the loss of one thousand men. After the British had besieged the fort for more than a month, they were driven from their intrenchments, on the 17th of September, by a party of Americans who sallied from the fort. The enemy then retreated to Chippewa; and in November the Americans destroyed Fort Erie, and recrossed to the New York side of the Niagara river.

When informed that General Izard, the American commander at Plattsburg, in New York, on Lake Champlain, had gone to the Niagara frontier with five thousand of his troops to reinforce General Brown, leaving only fifteen hundred under General Macomb at Plattsburg, Sir George Prevost, who commanded fourteen thousand veteran troops on the St. Lawrence, advanced toward Plattsburg, before which place he appeared on the 6th of September. Each party had during the summer constructed a small squadron on Lake Champlain. On Sunday morning, September 11, 1814, the British squadron under Commodore Downie attacked the American squadron under Commodore Macdonough off Plattsburg; and after a fierce engagement of several hours every British vessel surrendered to Macdonough. On the same day the British land force of twelve thousand men under Prevost, which had attacked the little American army under Macomb at Plattsburg, was defeated and compelled to retreat hastily toward Canada.

In the meantime the British had block-

aded the whole New England coast, and had taken possession of Eastport, Machias and Belfast, in Maine. A British squadron under Commodore Hardy had bombarded and cannonaded Stonington, in Connecticut, for four days when the enemy finally withdrew on the 14th of August. Property on the New England coast was destroyed by British marauding parties.

About the middle of August, 1814, a British fleet under Admiral Cochrane sailed up the Patuxent, and landed five thousand troops under General Ross, who defeated the Americans under General Winder at Bladensburg on the 24th of August, and, entering Washington City on the same day, burned the Capitol, the President's House and other public and private buildings, and then quickly returned to their shipping.

Encouraged by their success at Washington, the enemy threatened Baltimore with an attack. With about eight thousand British troops, Ross landed at North Point on the 12th of September, 1814; and, after a desperate engagement seven miles from Baltimore, on the same day, in which Ross was killed, the Americans under General Stricker were compelled to fall back behind the defenses of Baltimore. The British squadron which had ineffectually bombarded Fort McHenry, garrisoned by a few Americans under Major Armistead, a few miles below Baltimore, finally withdrew with the land troops on the morning of the 14th, September, 1814; and the attempt to take Baltimore was abandoned.

The subjugation of the Creek Indians by General Jackson did not put an end to the war in the South. The Spaniards of Florida permitted the British to make the town of Pensacola a base of operations. From this point a force of British troops and fugitive Creek warriors marched into Alabama, and attacked Fort Bowyer, now Fort Morgan, below Mobile, on the 15th of September, 1814, but were repulsed with heavy loss. Failing to obtain satisfaction from the Spanish Governor of Florida for sheltering the enemies of the United States, Jackson marched from Mobile, with two thousand

Tennesseans, against Pensacola, which he seized on the 7th of November, after driving the British to their shipping.

After returning to Mobile, Jackson was called to New Orleans to defend that city against an expected attack from the British army and navy. On the 14th of December, 1814, a British fleet captured an American flotilla in Lake Borgne. A British army of twelve thousand men under General Pakenham landed in Louisiana, and soon appeared below New Orleans. After being repulsed in an attack upon the British camp, on the night of the 23d of December, 1814, Jackson placed his little army of three thousand men, mostly Tennessee militia, behind strong intrenchments, three miles below New Orleans, and extending from the Mississippi river to an impenetrable cypress swamp, where he was soon reinforced by about three thousand Kentucky militia, increasing his army to six thousand men. The British opened a cannonade on the American works on the 28th of December, 1814, and again on New Year's day, in 1815. At length, on the 8th of January, 1815, the whole British army, twelve thousand strong, with Pakenham at its head, advanced to begin a grand attack upon the Americans, who opened a deadly musketry and artillery fire on the advancing enemy. The British troops at length wavered and began to flee; and, while endeavoring to rally them, General Pakenham was killed. The whole British army retreated to their ships, and this sanguinary battle ended in a glorious victory for the Americans. The British lost two thousand killed and wounded, while the Americans lost only seven killed and six wounded. This victory produced the liveliest joy in the United States.

The war was still continued with vigor on the ocean during the years 1814 and 1815. On the 28th of March, 1814, the American frigate *Essex*, Captain Porter, was captured off the port of Valparaiso, on the coast of Chili, in South America, by the British frigate *Phæbe* and sloop-of-war *Cherub*. On the 29th of April, 1814, the American sloop-of-war *Peacock*, Captain Warrington, captur-

ed the British brig *Epervier* off the coast of Florida. The American sloop-of-war *Wasp*, Captain Blakeley, was lost at sea after capturing thirteen British vessels, among which were the *Reindeer*, taken on the 28th of June, and the *Avon*, on the 1st of September, 1814. On 16th of January, 1815, the American frigate *President*, Commodore Decatur, was captured off Long Island by a British squadron. On the 20th of February, 1815, the American frigate *Constitution*, Commodore Stewart, captured the British sloop-of-war *Cyane* and *Levant* off Lisbon, in Portugal, after a spirited engagement. On the 23d of March, 1815, the American sloop-of-war *Hornet*, Captain Biddle, captured the British brig *Penguin* in the South Atlantic Ocean.

The Federalists had all along been strenuously opposed to the war, and had thrown every obstacle in the way of its prosecution by the Administration. At length, in December, 1814, a convention composed of delegates from all of the New England States, and called on the recommendation of the Legislatures of Massachusetts and Connecticut, assembled at Hartford, Connecticut, to consider the grievances of the people caused by the war, and to adopt measures to bring about its speedy termination. The proceedings of this convention, which were secret, were regarded by many as treasonable. Soon after the adjournment of the convention, the Legislatures of Massachusetts and Connecticut passed several laws which were in direct opposition to the laws of the United States; and a feared collision between the governments of the States and the National Government was only prevented by the arrival of intelligence that a treaty of peace had been signed at Ghent, in Belgium, on the 24th of December, 1814, by American and British commissioners. The President proclaimed peace on the 18th of February, 1815. The treaty left unsettled all the issues which had led to the war.

THE YEARS OF PEACE.

No sooner was the war with England terminated than the United States was obliged

to engage in a short war with the piratical Barbary State of Algiers, in Northern Africa. Under the impression that the navy of the United States had been almost destroyed by that of Great Britain, the Algerines had become extremely insolent, and committed depredations upon American commerce in the Mediterranean sea. Commodore Decatur, who was immediately sent to the Mediterranean with a United States squadron, captured two Algerine vessels on the 17th of June, 1815; and on the 28th, June, 1815, he appeared before the city of Algiers, and demanded that all Americans held as prisoners should be set at liberty, that all destroyed American property should be indemnified, and that all claims to tribute from the United States in future should be relinquished. Two days afterward, June 30, 1815, the Dey, or ruler of Algiers, greatly alarmed, assented to Decatur's conditions, and a treaty of peace was signed. Decatur also obtained satisfaction from the rulers of Tunis, Tripoli and Morocco; and thenceforth American commerce was not disturbed in the Mediterranean sea. The United States was the first power that made any determined efforts to stop the piratical proceedings of the Barbary States.

Two new States were admitted into the Union during the Administration of Mr. Madison—Louisiana, in April, 1812; and Indiana, in December, 1816. In the autumn of 1816 the Republican candidate for President, James Monroe, of Virginia, was elected by a large majority, with Daniel D. Tompkins, of New York, as Vice President.

Mr. Monroe was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1817. He selected a Cabinet of able men, and entered upon the duties of his office with vigor, at a time when the Republic was recovering from the effects of the late war with England, when American commerce and manufactures were reviving, and when the nation was starting on a new and glorious career of prosperity, wealth, power and greatness.

During the war with England the prices of various commodities had become so high

that the numerous manufacturing establishments in the United States had enjoyed a great degree of prosperity; but when, on the return of peace, British goods flooded the country at low prices, these establishments ceased to flourish, and thousands were compelled to seek other occupations. This sudden change in the pecuniary condition of so many thousands led to so large and rapid an emigration to the vast region west of the Alleghanies, which awaited the

Florida, Jackson marched into that country, captured the post of St. Mark's, sent the Spanish authorities to Pensacola, and afterward to Havana, in Cuba, and hanged Alexander Arbuthnot and Robert C. Ambrister, British subjects, who were known to have excited the Indians to war. These proceedings led to a treaty by which Spain ceded all of the Floridas to the United States; and, in February, 1821, that country was organized as a Territory. In 1818



James Monroe

industry of the agriculturist, that in less than ten years four new and prosperous States had grown up in the recent vast wilderness.

In the latter part of 1817 the Seminole and Creek Indians began a series of murderous attacks upon the white settlers of Southern Georgia. General Jackson, with some Tennessee troops, marched against the hostile Indians. With the belief that the Creeks were protected by the Spanish authorities of

a treaty with Great Britain fixed the boundary line between the United States and British America at forty-nine degrees north latitude, from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains.

Five new States were admitted into the Union during Monroe's Administration—Mississippi, in 1817; Illinois, in 1818; Alabama, in 1819; Maine, in 1820; and Missouri, in 1821. When the proposition for the admission of Missouri was brought for-

ward in Congress, in 1819, angry debates arose as to whether it should be admitted as a Free or a Slave State. This was the first great contest for supremacy in the Republic between the friends and the opponents of slavery. It was finally agreed, in 1820, by a compromise, that Missouri should be admitted as a Slave State, and that slavery should be allowed in all territory south of its southern boundary, thirty-six degrees and thirty

popular. Among the important events of the Administration of Monroe was the recognition of the independence of Mexico and the South American Republics by the United States, when the President declared, as a principle, "that the American continents are not henceforth to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." This is known as the *Monroe Doctrine*.



J. Q. Adams

minutes north latitude, and prohibited in all territory north and west of those limits. This is known as the *Missouri Compromise*. Under this compromise, Missouri became a State on the 21st of August, 1821.

In the autumn of 1820 Monroe and Tompkins were reelected President and Vice President by an almost unanimous Electoral vote. The old Federalist party was almost extinct, and the Administration was very

In August, 1824, the beloved Lafayette arrived in the United States, as the guest of the nation for whose independence he had fought so valiantly nearly half a century before. During a period of eleven months he visited twenty States of the Union, being everywhere received with demonstrations of gratitude. The frigate *Brandywine*, in compliment to him, conveyed him back to his delightful France.

In the Autumn of 1824 there were four candidates in the field for the Presidency. As not one of them had received a majority of the Electoral vote, the election was carried to the House of Representatives, when John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, son of President John Adams, was chosen President, and John Caldwell Calhoun, of South Carolina, was elected Vice President.

John Quincy Adams was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1825, when the United States was at peace with all the world. In

behalf of the Indians, and the difficulty would perhaps have ended in civil war had not the Indians, in consideration of a large annuity which was to be paid to them from the National treasury, agreed to remove peacefully to the country west of the Mississippi.

John Quincy Adams's Administration is celebrated for various internal improvements. The great Erie Canal, which connects the Hudson river with Lake Erie, in the State of New York, was completed in 1825 through



DE WITT CLINTON.
[From a painting in the City Hall, New York.]

the earlier part of his Administration there was a controversy between the National Government and the State of Georgia, concerning the removal of the Indians within the borders of that State. The National Government had agreed to remove the Indians to the region west of the Mississippi river when it could be done peaceably. The Governor of Georgia, assuming State supremacy, threatened to remove them immediately. The National Government interfered

the exertions of the distinguished De Witt Clinton. The first railroad in the United States was finished in Quincy, Massachusetts, in 1827.

The fiftieth anniversary of American Independence, or the 4th of July, 1826, was made memorable by a strange coincidence, which made a profound impression throughout the United States. On that day John Adams died at Quincy, Massachusetts, and Thomas Jefferson, at Monticello, Virginia.

Those two statesmen had been the most earnest advocates of independence; each had signed the great Declaration; each had been a member of the Congress, afterward Vice President, and lastly President of the United States.

It was during the Administration of John Quincy Adams that the principle of encouraging home manufactures by imposing duties on foreign articles of the same kind became a settled national policy in the United States,

In the Presidential election of 1828 General Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, was chosen President of the United States, and John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, was reëlected Vice President; thus defeating President John Quincy Adams for reëlection.

General Jackson was inaugurated, on the 4th of March, 1829, seventh President of the United States. He formed a Cabinet from his political friends, and entered upon the duties of his exalted station with a de-



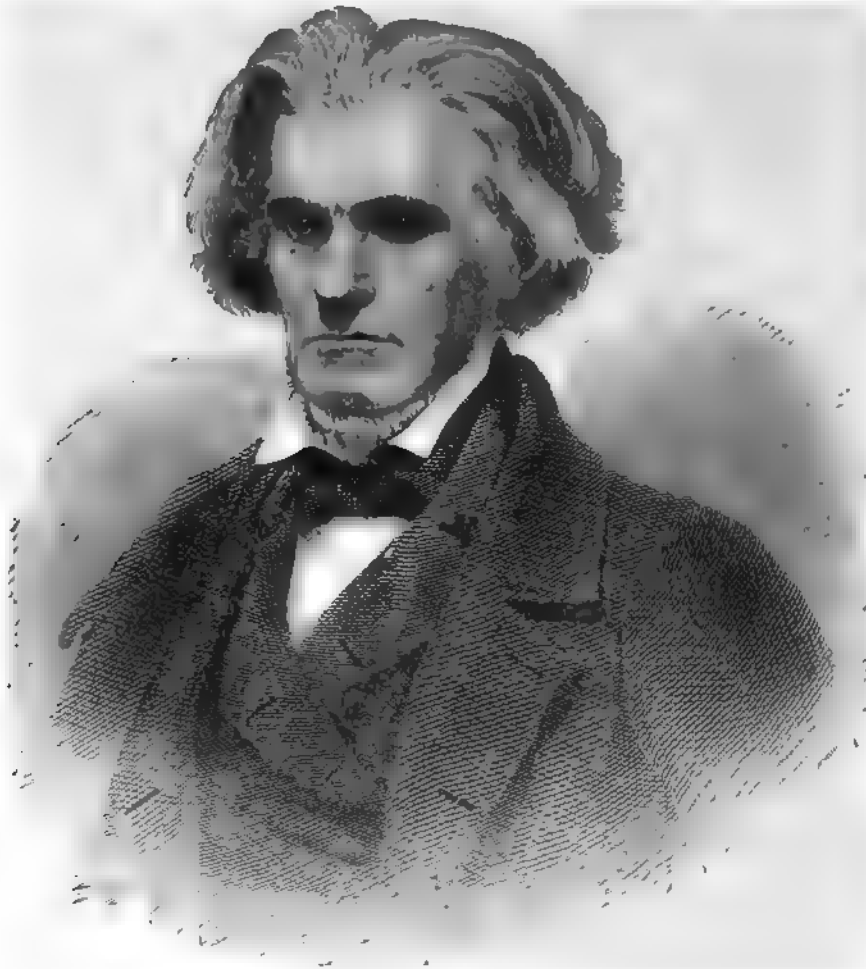
Andrew Jackson

and was called the *American System*. That policy was very popular with the manufacturers of the Northern section of the Union; but the planters of the cotton-growing States, who found a ready market for their cotton in England, opposed it. A tariff enacted in 1828 was made to appear very unjust to the southern planters by John C. Calhoun and other Southern politicians, who taught the doctrines of "State Rights" and "Nullification."

terminated will and with incorruptible integrity. In 1832 President Jackson came into collision with the Supreme Court of the United States respecting the removal of the Creek and Cherokee Indians from Georgia. The authorities of Georgia threatened to remove them by force; and, when the Supreme Court decided against the claims of that State, the President sided with the authorities of Georgia, and the Indians removed beyond the Mississippi.

In his first annual message to Congress, in December, 1829, President Jackson expressed himself strongly against a renewal of the charter of the United States Bank, which would expire in 1836; and although Congress refused to authorize the removal of the public funds from the United States Bank, as recommended by the President, he

menced a destructive war on the frontier settlements of Northern Illinois. The Indians were completely subdued in August of the same year, 1832, by United States troops under General Scott and Illinois militia under General Atkinson. Black Hawk was made prisoner, and taken to the principal Eastern cities in order that he might be im-



JOHN C. CALHOUN.

caused the Secretary of the Treasury to remove them in 1833. The result of this measure was great excitement and a terrible financial and business convulsion throughout the country.

In the spring of 1832 the Sac, Fox and Winnebago Indians, in Wisconsin Territory, led by the famous chief, Black-Hawk, com-

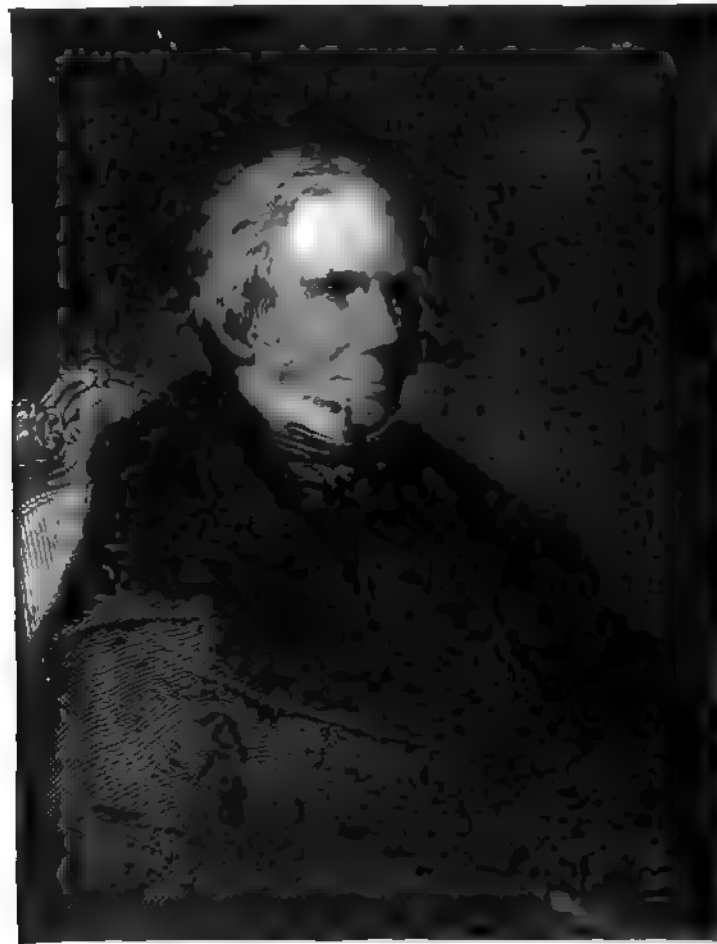
pressed with the number and power of the white people.

At the close of Jackson's first term a serious difficulty between the United States and France threatened to end in a war between the two nations. The French government did not promptly comply with the agreement to indemnify the United States for

French spoliation on American commerce during the wars of Napoleon. But the resolute stand taken by President Jackson caused France to pay the claims justly demanded by the United States, and the difficulty ended. In the autumn of 1832 Jackson was reelected President, with Martin Van Buren, of New York, as Vice President.

The tariff-law of 1828 was still a source

pared to resist the collection of duties in the port of Charleston by force of arms. At this crisis President Jackson issued a proclamation against the South Carolina nullifiers, with John C. Calhoun and Robert Y. Hayne at their head, declaring that he would enforce the laws of the United States by military power, if necessary. The threatened civil war was prevented by a compromise

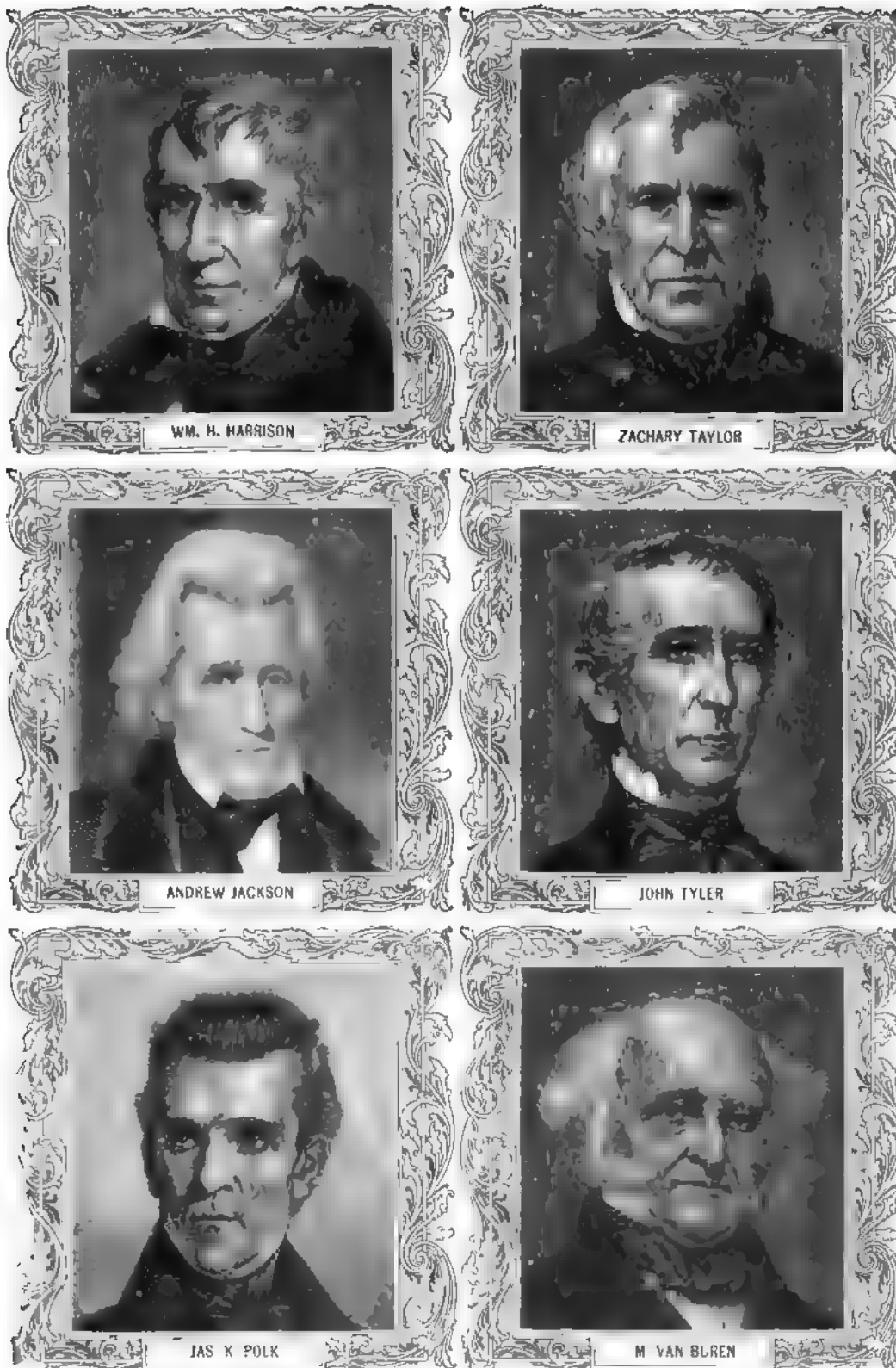


HENRY CLAY.

[By permission of the Magazine of American History.]

of bitter complaint in the Southern States; and in November, 1832, South Carolina, through a State convention assembled at Charleston, declared the tariff-laws to be unconstitutional, null and void. Assuming that the enforcement of those laws would be a sufficient cause for South Carolina to separate herself from the Union, that State pre-

pared by Henry Clay, of Kentucky, the author of the Missouri Compromise, and one of the warmest friends of the tariff system and on the 3d of March, 1833, a law went into operation which greatly reduced the duties so obnoxious to the Southern planters. In 1833 a famous debate occurred in the United States Senate on the State-Rights

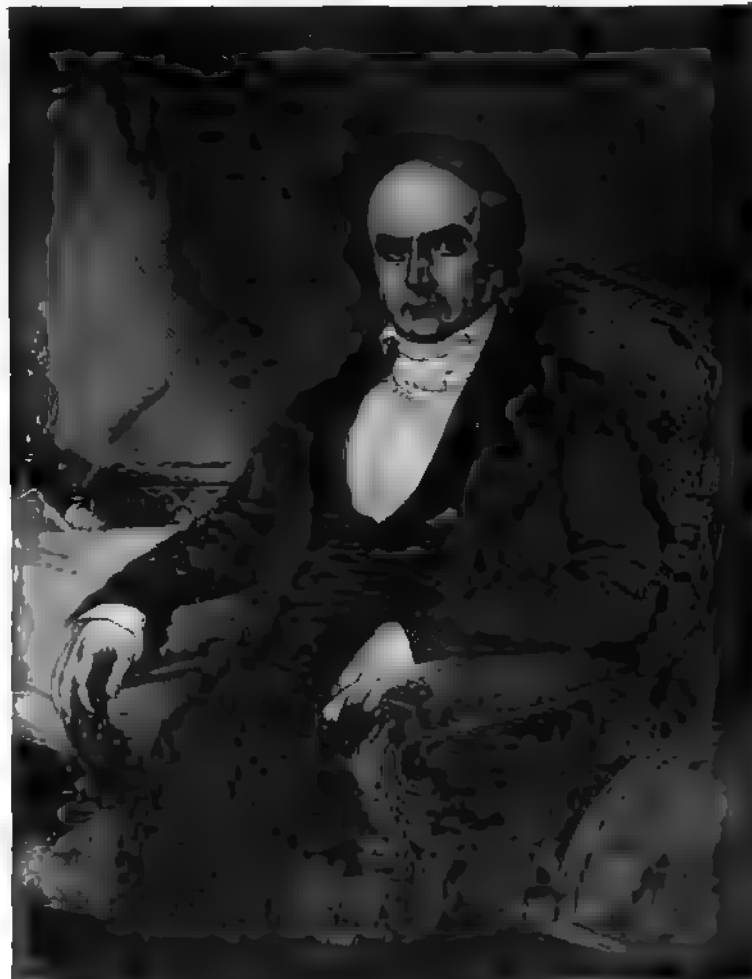


PRESIDENTS FROM 1829 TO 1850.

question between Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, and Robert Y. Hayne, of South Carolina.

When, in December, 1835, the United States government attempted to remove the Seminole Indians from Florida to the Territories west of the Mississippi, in accordance with a treaty which had been concluded

killed all but four of them. On the 30th of December, 1835, General Clinch defeated the Seminoles on the banks of the Withlacoochee; and on the 29th of February, 1836, General Gaines defeated them near the same place. On the 11th of July, 1836, a circular was issued from the Treasury Department requiring collectors of the public rev-



DANIEL WEBSTER.

with a few chiefs, that fierce tribe began a war against the United States. On the 28th of December, 1835, a band of Seminoles, with their famous chief, Osceola, at their head, killed General Thompson and five of his friends near Fort King. On the same day another party of Seminoles attacked one hundred men under Major Dade and

enue to receive only gold and silver in payment. This circular, known as the *Specie Circular*, created much bitter feeling against President Jackson.

Two new States were admitted into the Union during the Administration of General Jackson—Arkansas, in June, 1836; and Michigan, in January, 1837. In the

autumn of 1836 Martin Van Buren, of New York, the Democratic candidate for the office of President of the United States, was elected. As the people had failed to elect a Vice President, Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, was chosen as such by the United States Senate. The Whig candidate for President was General William Henry Harrison of Ohio.

Mr. Van Buren was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1837, at a time when the

not call in its deposits or collect its duties in specie, and the National treasury was empty. The State of Mississippi and the Territory of Florida repudiated their debts.

The Seminole war in Florida still continued. In March, 1837, some of the Seminole chiefs made a treaty of peace with General Jessup, but it was soon broken by the treacherous Osceola, who was in consequence seized by stratagem, in October, 1837, and imprisoned in Fort Moultrie,



Martin Van Buren

country was on the brink of a terrible financial and business convulsion. During March and April of that year, 1837, there were mercantile failures in the city of New York to the amount of over one hundred millions of dollars. The effects of these failures were felt throughout the whole country, and credit and confidence were destroyed. The banks suspended specie payment. The National Government could

where he died. On Christmas day, 1837, Colonel Zachary Taylor defeated the Seminoles near Lake Okechobee. This destructive war ended in 1842, after a continuance of seven years.

The peaceful relations between the governments of the United States and Great Britain were disturbed in 1837 by a rebellion in Canada, which had for its object the establishment of the independence of that

country. The leaders of the revolt were Louis Joseph Papineau, in Canada East, and William Lyon Mackenzie, in Canada West. Great Britain was offended because hundreds of citizens of the United States crossed the borders of New York into Canada to aid the rebellious Canadians. The danger of war was averted by the prompt action of the President of the United States and of the Governor of New York, who issued proclamations declaring that all who crossed the border to aid the insurgents would forfeit all

States government to preserve peace. The boundary line was finally settled by a treaty, negotiated at Washington, in 1842, by Daniel Webster on the part of the United States, and Lord Ashburton on the part of Great Britain.

The financial convulsions of this and the preceding Administration produced such a change in the minds of the people of the United States that the Whig candidate for the Presidency of the Republic, in 1840, General William Henry Harrison, of Ohio,



W. H. Harrison

claims to the protection of the government of the United States.

The peace between the United States and Great Britain was also threatened by a dispute about the boundary between the State of Maine and the British province of New Brunswick. The inhabitants of Maine and New Brunswick were only prevented from settling the dispute by an appeal to arms by the conciliatory course of General Scott, who had been sent to the border by the United

States government to preserve peace. The boundary line was finally settled by a treaty, negotiated at Washington, in 1842, by Daniel Webster on the part of the United States, and Lord Ashburton on the part of Great Britain.

The financial convulsions of this and the preceding Administration produced such a change in the minds of the people of the United States that the Whig candidate for the Presidency of the Republic, in 1840, General Harrison took the oath of office, on the 4th of March, 1841, as ninth President of the United States. On the 17th of March, 1841, the new President issued a proclamation calling an extra session of Congress, to begin on the 31st of May of that year. The hopes of the people of the

United States that a new career of prosperity was about to dawn upon the Nation by a change of policy were soon dispelled by the death of President Harrison, which occurred on the 4th of April, 1841, just one month after his inauguration.

In accordance with the requirements of the National Constitution, the Vice President, John Tyler, was immediately inaugurated President of the United States. The

lating the pledges which he had made to the party which had elected him to the Vice Presidency, immediately resigned their offices.

The year 1842 is noted for domestic troubles in Rhode Island, which threatened to involve that State in civil war. The difficulty was about the exchange of the old charter, granted by King Charles II. in 1663, for a new State constitution. The



John Tyler

extra session of Congress called by Harrison commenced on the 31st of May, and ended on the 13th of September, 1841. Two bills which had been passed for the re-charter of the United States Bank were vetoed by President Tyler. All the members of the Cabinet, with the exception of Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, dissatisfied with the action of the President in respect to the bank, charging him with vio-

people of the State were all in favor of the adoption of a new constitution; but with regard to the mode of adoption there were two parties, known respectively as the Law and Order party and the Suffrage party. The Law and Order party chose Samuel W. King for Governor, while the Suffrage party elected Thomas W. Dorr. Each of these claimed to be the legal Governor, and bloodshed was only prevented by United States

troops who had been sent there to preserve order. A new constitution was adopted the same year, 1842, and went into operation in 1843.

The question of the admission, as a State of the Union, of the independent Republic of Texas, which had achieved its independence of Mexico in the battle of San Jacinto, in April, 1836, after a bloody war, was warmly discussed in the United States during the last year of Tyler's Administration. The annexation of this Republic, in which slavery existed, was violently opposed in the Northern States, because it would increase the territorial extent and political power of slavery; while it was advocated in the Southern States for that very reason. In the autumn of 1844 James Knox Polk, of Tennessee, the Democratic candidate, who was in favor of the annexation of Texas, was elected President of the United States, with George Mifflin Dallas, of Pennsylvania, as Vice President; thus defeating Henry Clay, the Whig candidate.

The first use ever made of the Electro-Magnetic Telegraph—the invention of Professor Samuel Finley Breese Morse—was in 1844, in sending to Washington the account of the proceedings of the Democratic National Convention at Baltimore, which nominated Mr. Polk as a candidate for the Presidency. On the 3d of March, 1845, the day before he retired from the Presidency, Mr. Tyler signed a bill for the admission of Florida and Iowa into the Union of States.

Mr. Polk was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1845, at a period when the United States had a serious dispute with Great Britain in regard to the possession of the Territory of Oregon, on the Pacific Coast. The territory was claimed by both Great Britain and the United States; but the difficulty, which at one time threatened to end in war, was settled in 1846 by a division of the territory, giving to Great Britain all that portion north of forty-nine degrees north latitude, and to the United States all that portion south of those limits.

On the 4th of July, 1845, the government of Texas formally approved of the joint-resolution of the Congress of the United States for annexation, and that Republic became a State of the American Union. Mexico, which had never acknowledged the independence of Texas, and which still regarded that country as a part of her territory, immediately prepared for war with the United States, and recalled her minister, General Almonte, from Washington.

President Polk now ordered General Zachary Taylor to advance into Texas with fifteen hundred troops to protect that State



SAMUEL FINLEY BREESE MORSE.

from invasion, and to take post near the Rio Grande as an army of observation. In March, 1846, Taylor left his camp at Corpus Christi, and, having established a depot of supplies at Point Isabel, advanced to the mouth of the Rio Grande, opposite the Mexican city of Matamoras, where he erected Fort Brown.

WAR WITH MEXICO.

Being informed that the Mexicans were crossing the Rio Grande above Fort Brown, Taylor sent sixty dragoons under Captain Thornton to reconnoiter. These were surprised, on the 26th of April, 1846, by the

Mexicans, and, after losing sixteen men, were made prisoners, Captain Thornton alone escaping by a leap of his horse. This was the first blood shed in the war between the United States and Mexico.

Leaving a small garrison in Fort Brown, Taylor marched back to Point Isabel, which was threatened by the Mexicans. While on his return to Fort Brown, Taylor, at the head of two thousand men, met six thousand Mexicans under Arista,

again defeated the Mexicans with a loss of one thousand men, at Resaca de la Palma. In this battle Captain May with a force of dragoons was ordered to charge upon a Mexican battery under General La Vega's direction, which was doing terrible execution. In the face of a murderous fire, Captain May and his brave followers drove away or cut to pieces the Mexican cannoniers, and took General La Vega prisoner at his guns. By the battles of Palo Alto and



James W. Taylor

at a prairie called Palo Alto, on the 8th of May, and, after a desperate battle of five hours, during which he lost only fifty-three men, Taylor gained a glorious victory. Among the mortally wounded was Major Ringgold, whose efficient battery had contributed vastly toward gaining the victory. As the officers crowded around the heroic major when he fell, he said to them: "Leave me alone. You are wanted at the front." On the following day, May 9, 1846, Taylor

Resaca de la Palma the Mexican army was virtually annihilated.

On the 11th of May, 1846, the Congress of the United States declared that "war existed by the act of the Republic of Mexico," and appropriated ten millions of dollars to carry on the war, and authorized the President to call out fifty thousand volunteers. The Secretary of War and General Scott planned the military operations. A fleet was to sail around Cape Horn and attack

the Pacific coast of Mexico; an Army of the West, under General Stephen W. Kearney, was assembled at Fort Leavenworth to invade New Mexico and to coöperate with the Pacific fleet; an Army of the Centre, under General John Ellis Wool, was collected at San Antonio de Bexar. in Texas, to invade Mexico from that point; and the Army of

24th of September, with its garrison of nine thousand Mexican troops under General Ampudia. After this triumph, Taylor advanced farther into Mexico; and, after being joined by General Wool, he took possession of Victoria, the capital of the State of Tamaulipas, on the 29th of December, 1846.

Early in 1847 a large part of Taylor's



COLONEL JOHN C. FREMONT.

Occupation, under General Taylor, was largely reinforced by the new volunteers.

On the 18th of May, 1846, General Taylor crossed the Rio Grande into Mexico, and took possession of the city of Matamoros. In August, 1846, Taylor, at the head of six thousand men, marched against the city of Monterey, which, after a siege and assault of four days, he captured on the

army was sent to assist General Scott in the siege of Vera Cruz, so that Taylor was left in command of only five thousand men, to oppose twenty thousand Mexicans gathering at San Luis Potosi under General Santa Anna. On the 23d of February, 1847, a fierce battle was fought between the armies of Taylor and Santa Anna at a plantation called Buena Vista, eleven miles from Sal-

tillo. The Mexicans, although four times as numerous as the Americans, were badly defeated, and compelled to flee during the night and leave their dead and wounded on the field of battle. The Americans were now masters of all Northern Mexico; and in September, 1847, Taylor left his army in command of General Wool, and returned to the United States.

Pacific coast. While on his way to California, Kearney learned, by a messenger, that the conquest of that country had already been accomplished by Colonel John Charles Fremont, with a few United States troops, assisted by the United States navy under Commodores Sloat and Stockton. On February 18, 1847, Kearney proclaimed the annexation of California to the United States.



GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT.

The Army of the West under General Kearney took formal possession of New Mexico, at Santa Fe, its capital, on the 18th of August, 1846. Leaving the greater part of his force with Colonel Doniphan at Santa Fe, Kearney, at the head of one hundred men hastened to take possession of the Mexican province of California, on the

In accordance with the orders of General Kearney, Colonel Doniphan, with one thousand Missouri volunteers, forced the Navajo Indians to make a treaty of peace with the United States on the 22d of March, 1846, and then proceed to join General Wool. Doniphan defeated the Mexicans under General Ponce de Leon at Bracito, on

Christmas day, 1846; and at Sacramento, on the 28th of February, 1847, he gained a victory which gave him possession of Chihuahua, a city of forty thousand inhabitants and the capital of the State of the same name. After a march of five thousand miles, Doniphan joined General Wool at Saltillo on the 22d of March, 1847. The conquest of Northern Mexico and California was now complete, and General Winfield Scott had just commenced at Vera Cruz a campaign which ended in the reduction of the Mexican capital and the military occupation of the heart of the Mexican Republic.

On the 9th of March, 1847, a United States army of twelve thousand men under General Scott, and a squadron under Commodore Conner, appeared before Vera Cruz, and soon completely invested the city. After a vigorous siege and bombardment, the city of Vera Cruz and the neighboring castle of San Juan de Ulloa, together with five thousand Mexican troops and five hundred cannon, were surrendered to Scott, on the 26th of March, 1847.

After the capture of Vera Cruz, Scott's army marched toward the city of Mexico. At Cerro Gordo, a difficult mountain pass, Scott defeated Santa Anna, who was at the head of twelve thousand troops strongly intrenched. The Mexicans lost four thousand killed and wounded, and three thousand were made prisoners by the Americans. The Mexican army was completely broken up, and Santa Anna fled on a mule.

After their victory at Cerro Gordo, the Americans continued their advance toward the capital of the Mexican Republic, took possession of Peroté, the strongest fortress in Mexico, on the 22d of April, 1847, and on the 5th of May entered Puebla, a city of eighty thousand inhabitants, where they rested until August, after a series of victories almost unparalleled in the annals of war.

After having received reinforcements, Scott left Puebla on the 7th of August, 1847, and resumed his march toward the Mexican capital; and on the 10th, August, 1847, the American troops saw the exten-

sive valley of Mexico before them. Lakes, plains, cities and cloud-capped mountains burst upon their gaze. Away in the distance was seen the great city of the Montezumas, with its lofty domes and towers. But between that city and the American army were strong fortifications, and a Mexican army of thirty thousand men under Santa Anna, to be overcome.

On the 20th of August, 1847, the American army, after a bloody struggle, carried the Mexican camp of Contreras by assault. On the same day the Americans took the strong fortress of San Antonio, and gained a brilliant victory over the Mexicans at Churubusco. Santa Anna's army, virtually annihilated, fled to the capital. During this bloody day the Mexicans lost four thousand men killed and wounded, and over three thousand were made prisoners by the victorious Americans.

Scott now offered the Mexicans peace. Santa Anna asked for an armistice, which Scott granted; but, when informed that the treacherous Mexican general was improving the time by strengthening the defenses of the capital, the American commander declared the armistice at an end on the 7th of September, 1847.

The victorious Americans took by storm the strong position of Molino del Rey on the 8th of September, and the lofty fortified hill of Chapultepec on the 13th of the same month; and on the 14th, September, 1847, Scott entered the Mexican capital in triumph, and by his orders the Stars and Stripes were placed on the National Palace. Order was soon restored in the city. Santa Anna and the authorities of the Mexican Republic had fled.

A treaty of peace between the governments of the United States and Mexico was concluded at Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the 2d of February, 1848; and President Polk proclaimed peace on the 4th of July of the same year. By the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, New Mexico and California became Territories of the United States, while the United States government agreed to pay to Mexico fifteen millions of dollars

for the ceded territory, and to assume the debts due by the Mexican government to American citizens.

In May, 1848, Wisconsin was admitted into the Union as a State. In the autumn of the same year the Whig candidate, General Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, whose great military achievements in Mexico had

made him a popular favorite, was elected President of the United States, with Millard Fillmore, of New York, as Vice President. The Democratic candidate for President was Lewis Cass of Michigan. Ex-President Martin Van Buren was the candidate of the Free Soil party, in opposition to the extension of slavery into the Territories.

SECTION III.—ENGLAND AND REVOLUTIONARY EUROPE.

NEW STATES-SYSTEM.



THE Congress of Vienna in 1815 had reconstructed the map of Europe, restoring to the different powers the territories which Napoleon had wrested from them. Holland and Belgium became one kingdom, entitled *The Netherlands*, under the House of Orange, or Nassau. Poland became a separate kingdom, with a Diet and constitution of its own, under the Czar of Russia. Norway was transferred from the King of Denmark to the King of Sweden. Prussia recovered all her lost territories, and received in addition a large part of Saxony. Saxony, Bavaria, Würtemberg and Hanover were recognized as kingdoms. The Tyrol and Lombardy were restored to Austria. The Kingdom of Sardinia and the Swiss Republic were restored, as was also the Bourbon dynasty in Naples. The Bourbons were also restored in Spain, and the House of Braganza in Portugal. Austria, Prussia and the German states were united into a league called the *Germanic Confederation*, whose Diet was to assemble regularly at Frankfort-on-the-Main; and the Austrian representative was to preside over the Diet. The new States-System thus established was to be maintained by Great Britain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia—which were recognized as the *Five Great Powers*—whose duty was to preserve the peace of Europe and to manage European affairs exclusively. The principal plenipotentiaries in the Congress of Vienna

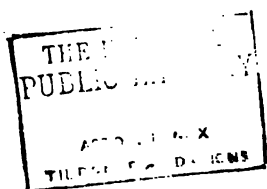
were the Emperor Alexander of Russia, Prince Metternich of Austria, Talleyrand of France, and Lord Castlereagh of Great Britain.

THE HOLY ALLIANCE.

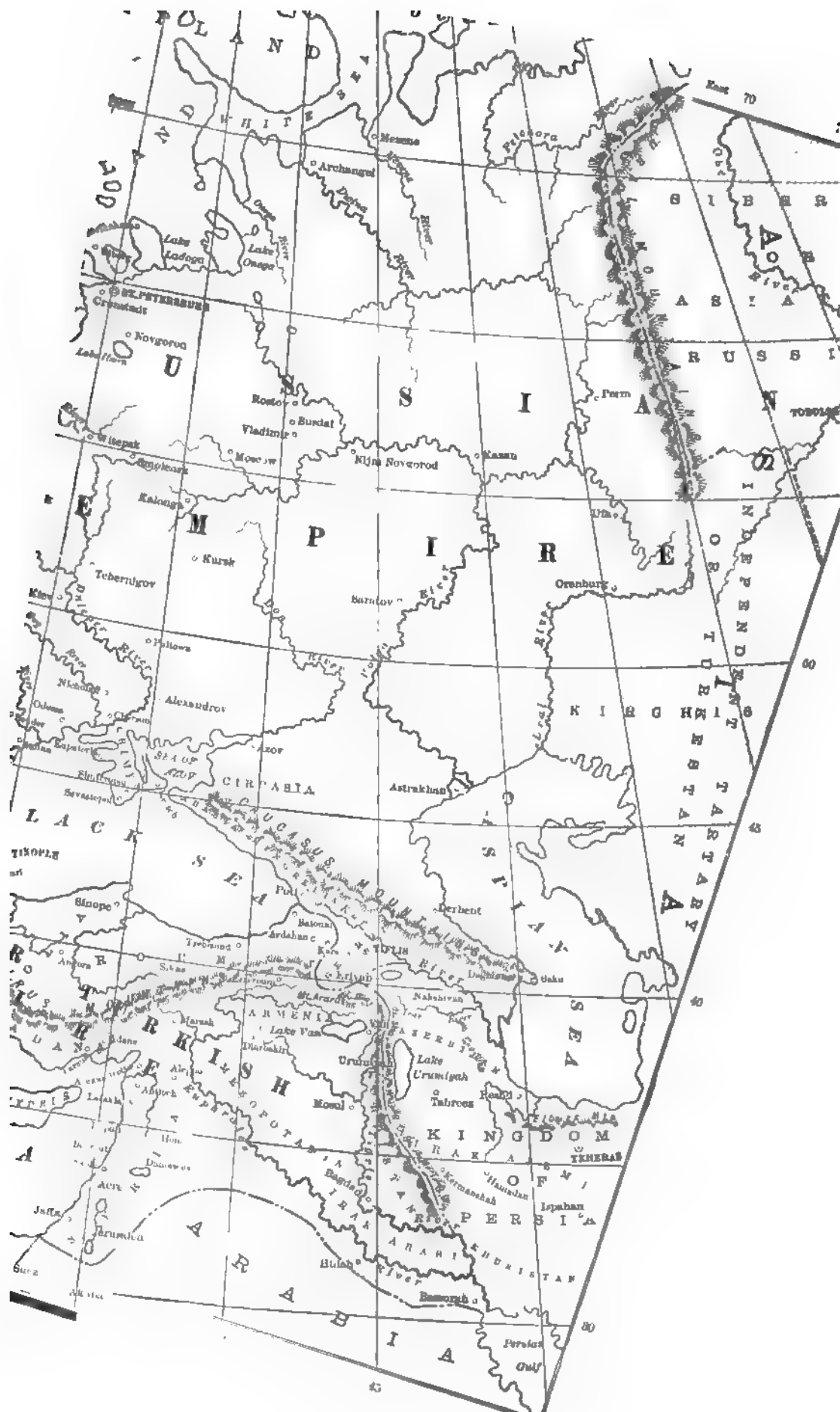
On September 25, 1815, the three absolute sovereigns—Alexander I. of Russia, Frederick William III. of Prussia and Francis I. of Austria—signed, in the city of Paris, the famous compact known as the *Holy Alliance*, by which they swore “that, in accordance with the principles of Holy Scripture, they would, as brothers, render each other all the assistance in their power, on every occasion.”

The Holy Alliance was at length joined by all the sovereigns of Europe, except the Pope and the British monarch. This powerful league of princes was made, as we shall presently see, an instrument for the suppression of all democratic and liberal tendencies, and the strengthening of monarchical power under the mask of piety and religion. In a few years popular insurrections that broke out in Italy and Spain were suppressed by this formidable league of crowned heads.

While princes were seeking to establish absolute governments, the people of Europe were striving for constitutional forms. A free government, like that enjoyed by the people of Great Britain, was what seemed most desirable to the oppressed masses of Europe. The struggle between absolutism and constitutionalism in Continental Europe went on for more than thirty years.







THE ROYALIST REACTION IN FRANCE.

After the restoration of the Bourbons, in the person of Louis XVIII., France was distracted by the contests of parties. A reaction in favor of the royalists had taken place among the French people. The royalists manifested the most intense hatred against the Bonapartists and the republicans, who were charged with the authorship of all the misery which had been brought upon the country by twenty-three years of revolution and war.

The zealous royalists, not satisfied with the moderation of the king, who tried to steer between the two extremes, demanded punishment of the Bonapartists and republicans; and Louis XVIII., although disposed to be moderate, found himself obliged to banish all those who had caused the execution of his brother, Louis XVI. The royalists, called *White Jacobins*, disgraced themselves by the bloody massacre of Bonapartists and republicans at Marseilles, Nismes, Toulon, Toulouse, Avignon and Lyons.

To gratify the reactionary party, which desired the reëstablishment of the ancient despotism, the king was forced to violate, in many instances, the constitutional Charter, which he had sworn to observe. He was urged, against his own will, to place restrictions upon the liberties of the people in various ways, and to increase the royal power. The influence of the royalists prevailed to some extent, and the liberty of the press and other privileges were in a great measure restricted.

In September, 1816, King Louis XVIII. dissolved the Chamber of Deputies, whose reactionary tendencies had disgusted even this Bourbon monarch. He declared his determination to govern his kingdom in accordance with the principles of the Charter; and the elections which were held a month afterward resulted in the choice of candidates of the moderate or constitutional party, which heartily sustained the government.

The accession of France to the Holy Alliance at the Congress of Aix la Chapelle,

in 1818, when the foreign military occupation of France ceased, through the efforts of the Duke of Wellington, the commander, of this allied army, thus reducing the term of occupation from five to three years, engaged the French government to a system of policy designed to secure monarchical power throughout Europe; but a large number of the French deputies resisted the extension of the royal prerogative; and the French Prime Minister, Decazes, supported by the moderate royalists, sought to frame a system which would strengthen the monarchy without injuring the constitution. But he was violently opposed by the ultras, or violent royalists, who obtained a temporary triumph through an unfortunate event.

The assassination of the Duke of Berry, the king's nephew, and the son of the Count of Artois, on the night of February 13, 1820, by the fanatic Louvel facilitated the efforts of the reactionary party, headed by the Count of Artois and the Duke of Angoulême. These ultra royalists, called the *extreme right*, because of the place they occupied in the Chambers, denounced Decazes for encouraging doctrines subversive of the monarchy, producing such effect upon the court that Decazes resigned. The widowed Duchess of Berry gave birth to a son, September 29, 1820, who received the title of Duke of Bordeaux—an event hailed with joy by the Bourbonists.

An ultra-royalist Ministry under the Duke de Richelieu was then formed; and laws were passed authorizing the Prime Minister to arrest suspected persons, imposing censorship on the press and raising the qualifications for the elective franchise; but even these violations of the Charter did not satisfy the *extreme right*, who accordingly united with the *left*, or liberal party, in the Chambers, in strenuous efforts to overthrow the Richelieu Ministry. The Chambers were the scenes of violent and stormy debates unbecoming the dignity of a deliberative assembly. The Duke de Richelieu resigned, December 17, 1821, and was succeeded by a more ultra royalist Ministry under Villele. The popular dissatisfaction

was manifested in numberless plots, riots and incendiary fires, which were made the pretext for fresh restrictions.

Under Villele's Ministry the zeal of the royalists reached its climax. The royalist majority in the Chamber of Deputies showed itself so very unscrupulous, by expelling the liberal deputy Manuel for revolutionary doctrines without permitting him to make any defense, that the left retired from the Chamber in a body; so that the Chamber voted funds without opposition for sending the army under the Duke of Angoulême into Spain to restore the absolute power of King Ferdinand VII. The French army of one hundred thousand men under the Duke of Angoulême then invaded Spain, A. D. 1823, at the command of the Holy Alliance, and restored the absolute power of the Bourbon King of Spain.

The success of the French army in Spain emboldened the Ministry of Villele to set aside the Charter, and, by means of intimidation, bribery and corruption, to secure in the elections of 1824 a Chamber of Deputies which contained but nineteen liberal members.

King Louis XVIII. died September 16, 1824, and was succeeded as King of France by his brother, the Count of Artois, who thus became CHARLES X. The new king was a thorough Bourbon, ignorant, narrow-minded, a firm believer in absolute rule, and thoroughly under the influence of the Jesuits. He was frank and cordial in his disposition, and his friends were warmly attached to him. By his solemn coronation and anointing at Rheims, May 29, 1825, he seemed to indicate that he intended to govern after the manner of the old "Most Christian" kings. He therefore turned his affections toward the nobility and the clergy, and gave himself up entirely to the reactionary party, whose watchword was "Throne and Altar."

Under the new king, Villele brought forward two very unpopular measures, one granting an indemnification of a thousand francs each to the Emigrants for the forfeiture of their estates during the Revolution,

and another reducing the rate of interest on the public debt. These laws were passed with great opposition; but some concession was made to public opinion by acknowledging the independence of Hayti and opening commercial intercourse with the South American republics, while commercial treaties were also concluded with Great Britain and the Empire of Brazil.

Villele strengthened his Ministry in 1826 by creating thirty-one new peers. By reviving the old laws of primogeniture and entail he sought to establish the aristocracy of France on a permanent basis, but the law of primogeniture was so odious to the great mass of the French nation that it was rejected by the Chamber of Peers. Public attention in France was mainly occupied by the trial of Ouvrard, who had furnished supplies to the French army when it invaded Spain in 1823. The terms of his contract were exorbitant, and he succeeded in effecting it by wholesale bribery. He had likewise joined in drawing double pay and double rations for the soldiers in the campaign in Spain. When Villele first heard of the transaction he caused Ouvrard to be arrested and brought to trial; but when, in the course of the investigation, it appeared that many persons of great rank and influence were implicated in the transaction, the Prime Minister induced the Chamber of Peers to bring the matter to a hasty conclusion. But the abuses which had been disclosed were already made public; and the effort to screen the guilty, combined with the illegal protection accorded to the Jesuits, exposed Villele to public and deserved censure.

The alienation of the French people from Villele's Ministry was completed by the dissolution of the National Guard, the revival of the censorship of the press, and the adoption of several harsh measures to disperse popular assemblies. Villele was conscious that he was losing ground; wherefore he dissolved the Chamber of Deputies, though three years of its term were yet unexpired. At the same time he created seventy-six new peers—an act wholly at variance with the spirit of the Charter.

Villele was disappointed by the result of the elections, which returned a liberal majority. The king himself seemed to abandon the principles of the Holy Alliance by congratulating the Chambers on the victory of Navarino and expressing himself favorable to the liberties of Greece. Soon afterward Villele resigned, and was succeeded by a more liberal Ministry under M. Portalis. One of the first measures of this Ministry was to remove the system of public education from the control of the Jesuits. This proceeding was popular with the French nation, but it gave great offense to the king. The new Ministry was opposed by the *extreme right*, by the clergy and by many of its professed partisans, and was suspected by the *left*; and M. Portalis finally resigned August 8, 1829, whereupon an ultra-royalist Cabinet under the leadership of Prince Jules de Polignac was appointed.

THE SOCIAL STRUGGLE IN ENGLAND.

Great Britain emerged from the long contest with France with increased power and national glory. Her empire was greatly extended in all parts of the world; her supremacy on the sea was undisputed; her wealth and commerce were increased; and her people enjoyed more civil and political liberty than any other in Europe. But, with all this national prosperity, the lower classes of the English people were sunk in extreme wretchedness and poverty.

The long wars with France, and the immense subsidies with which Great Britain had furnished her Continental allies, raised her national debt to eight hundred million pounds sterling; and her people were borne down with the most oppressive taxes. During the Napoleonic wars the English manufacturers were enabled to carry on their business very successfully, because then the people of Continental Europe had been compelled to relinquish all peaceful pursuits. When peace returned the people of the Continent were enabled to return to their former occupations and to compete successfully with the English manufacturers. The result was the decline of the prosperity of

English manufactures, and the want of employment for the English workingmen, who were in consequence reduced to great distress.

From the time of the beginning of the Ministry of the Earl of Liverpool, in 1812, the development of English life, which had been roughly arrested in 1792 by the reaction against the French Revolution, resumed its natural course. The anti-revolutionary terror which Edmund Burke had aroused had died out, and the social distress which followed in England after the renewal of the war with Bonaparte in 1803 led to the revival of questions of internal reform which had been set aside ever since the outbreak of the French Revolution as Jacobinical. The natural relation of trade and commerce to the general wealth of the British nation at large was disturbed by the peculiar circumstances of the time. The war enriched the landowner, the capitalist, the manufacturer, the farmer; but it impoverished the poor; so that the rich became richer and the poor poorer. During this struggle with Napoleon began that war of classes—that severance between rich and poor, between employers and employed—which still constitutes the great difficulty of English politics.

England's increase of wealth was indeed enormous. As her navy ruled the seas the war had given her possession of the colonies of Spain, of Holland and of France; and, though her trade was for some time checked by the Berlin Decrees, Napoleon's efforts were soon rendered fruitless by the vast smuggling system which had sprung up along the coast of North Germany. Notwithstanding the serious blow to English commerce in consequence of the war with the United States from 1812 to 1815, English exports almost doubled during the last fifteen years of the war against Napoleon. The great inventions of Watt and Arkwright gave a fresh impetus to manufactures, and the consumption of raw cotton in the Lancashire mills rose during the same period from fifty million pounds to a hundred million. Agriculture had been forced into a feverish and unhealthy prosperity by

the vast accumulation of capital and by a succession of bad seasons. Wheat reached famine prices, and the value of land rose in proportion to the price of wheat. Inclosures went on with immense rapidity, and every landowner's income was doubled; while the farmers were able to introduce improvements into the process of agriculture which altered the entire face of the country.

Although the increase of English wealth was immense, that wealth was but partially distributed. During the struggle with Napoleon the population of England increased from ten millions to thirteen millions; and the rapid increase prevented a rise in the rate of wages, which would have naturally advanced in a corresponding degree with the growth of national wealth. Even the manufactures, which eventually benefited the laboring classes, appeared at first rather to depress them. One of the first results of the introduction of labor-saving machinery was the ruin of many small trades which were carried on at home, and the consequent reduction of many families to pauperism. The terrible pressure of this transition from handicraft to machinery was exemplified in the winter of 1811 in the riots of the Luddites, who proceeded to break the new machines. These riots extended over the Northern and Midland counties of England, and were only suppressed by military force.

While labor was thus thrown out of its older grooves, and the rate of wages kept down at an artificially low rate by the rapid increase of population, the increase in the price of wheat, which brought wealth to the landowner and the farmer, brought only famine and death to the poor; as the wars with France and the United States cut off England from the vast corn-fields of Continental Europe and America. Scarcity of wheat caused a frightful increase of pauperism among the laboring classes. The poor rate increased fifty per cent.; and the increase of poverty produced its inevitable result—the increase of crime.

But the sense of national glory and national distress had little effect upon the

course of British home politics. The Perceval Ministry had blindly opposed every project of change or reform, but the terror-struck reaction against the French Revolution which this opposition aimed to perpetuate was even then passing away. The policy of constitutional and administrative progress which the second William Pitt had reluctantly abandoned was revived by the publication of the *Edinburgh Review* in 1802 by a circle of young lawyers of Edinburgh — Brougham, Jeffrey, Horner and Mackintosh. A new vigor was given to political speculation by Jeremy Bentham's advocacy of the doctrine of Utility, and his definition of "the greatest happiness of the greatest number" as the aim of political action. The question of Parliamentary Reform was revived in 1809 by Sir Francis Burdett, but only fifteen members supported his motion. He was afterward arrested and committed to the Tower for publishing a pamphlet which he styled "a part of our fellow-subjects collected together by means which it is not necessary to describe," and he remained in imprisonment until the prorogation of Parliament.

The perseverance with which Canning pressed Catholic Emancipation year by year produced a far greater effect. Both efforts at reform were equally vain while Perceval lived; but, upon Lord Liverpool's accession to power, the development of a more liberal sentiment in the English nation was felt in the policy of "moderate concession" adopted by the new Ministry. Catholic Emancipation became an open question in the Cabinet itself, and was adopted by the House of Commons in 1812, but was rejected by the House of Lords.

The scarcity caused by a succession of bad harvests was intensified by the selfish legislation of the landowners in Parliament. Conscious that the prosperity of English agriculture rested on the high price of corn produced by the war, these landowners in Parliament passed an act in 1815 prohibiting the introduction of foreign grain until wheat had reached famine prices.

While the rapid development of English

industry glutted the home and foreign markets with unsalable goods, and thus brought English mills and factories to a stand still, English society was also disturbed by the great changes of employment consequent on a sudden return to peace after twenty-three years of war, and by the disbanding of the immense British land and naval forces.

The movement against machinery, which had been suppressed in 1812, revived in the formidable riots of the Luddites; while the distress of the rural poor brought about a great increase of crime. The steady opposition of Lord Liverpool's Ministry, in which Lord Castlereagh's influence was now predominant, to any project of political progress produced a serious popular feeling which brought into prominence a class of men whose demand for a "radical reform" in English institutions gained for them the name of *Radicals*; and more violent agitators indulged in treasonable disaffection and silly plots against the government. The dispersal of a mass meeting of eighty thousand persons at Manchester to petition for Parliamentary Reform, in August, 1819, by military force increased the unpopularity of the Ministry.

For several centuries the Barbary powers of Northern Africa had committed piracies on people of Christian countries. The commanders of vessels were kept as prisoners for ransom, and the crews were reduced to slavery. It had long been the custom of Christian nations to pay tribute to the pirates, as a bribe for the safety of their commerce; but the insolence of the corsairs induced the United States government, in 1815, to send a squadron under Commodore Decatur to humble them. Decatur compelled the Dey of Algiers to accept very humiliating conditions. The British government followed the example of the United States. In 1816 a British squadron under Lord Exmouth was sent against Algiers. Lord Exmouth appeared before the city of Algiers in May, 1816, and demanded the release of all Christians whom the Dey held in slavery. As Lord Exmouth received no

answer to his demand, he opened a heavy cannonade upon the city, which was returned by the Algerine batteries; and, after several hours' fighting, the Dey's fleet and a great part of the city were destroyed. The following morning the Dey informed Lord Exmouth that he would set his Christian slaves and captives at liberty, and the firing ceased. Twelve hundred Christians were then released and allowed to return to their homes.

While Great Britain was agitated and convulsed, the poor, old, blind and insane King George III. died at Windsor Castle, January 29, 1820, in the eighty-second year of his age and the sixtieth of his reign—the longest reign in the annals of England. The Prince of Wales, who had been Prince Regent during the nine years of his father's insanity, then ascended the thrones of Great Britain and Hanover as GEORGE IV.

ASPIRATIONS IN GERMANY.

In Germany the princes forgot their promises to give their people liberal constitutions and representative government, and sought to stifle the desire for German unity, which was kept alive by the students in the universities. An outburst of youthful enthusiasm at the third centennial of the Reformation, which happened to be the fourth anniversary of the battle of Leipsic, October 18, 1817, caused the sovereigns of Austria, Prussia and Russia to denounce the German student society at the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1818. Augustus von Kotzebue, the famous dramatist and Russian Consul-General in Germany, having ridiculed the student demonstration through the press, was assassinated at Mannheim by a student from Jena, named Sand, in 1819; and the German statesmen, believing that a widespread conspiracy existed among the students, suppressed the freedom of the universities, filling the prisons with students.

REVOLUTION IN SPAIN.

After Lord Wellington's expulsion of the French from Spain, in 1813, Ferdinand VII. came into quiet possession of the Spanish

throne. He began his reign with the most unrelenting tyranny over his subjects. The Inquisition was reëstablished with all its horrors; the liberal Cortes Constitution of 1812 was suppressed; and thousands who had exposed their lives in the cause of Ferdinand against the French invaders of Spain were persecuted in the most unrelenting manner.

The tyrannical rule of Ferdinand VII. roused the Spanish liberals against him; and on the 1st of January, 1820, a mutiny broke out among the troops at Cadiz, who were to be sent to crush the revolution against Spanish authority in South America; and very soon the whole Spanish kingdom was in insurrection against the tyrannical king. In order to retain his crown, Ferdinand was forced to grant his subjects the Constitution of 1812. The liberals abused their power by hasty innovations, and by persecutions of the priests and the supporters of the Apostolic party.

It was resolved by the members of the Holy Alliance, in a Congress at Verona, to suppress the Spanish Constitution by violence; and in 1823 a French army of one hundred thousand men under the Duke of Angoulême entered Spain. The French invaders marched through the country to Cadiz, overcame all opposition on the part of the Spanish liberals, and effected the overthrow of the Cortes Constitution and the reëstablishment of the absolute power of the king. From this time until his death, in 1833, Ferdinand VII. governed despotically.

REVOLUTION IN PORTUGAL.

Portugal, as well as Spain, was torn by internal commotions. Maria I. died in Brazil in 1816, and was succeeded on the throne of Portugal and Brazil by her son JOHN VI., the Prince Regent. The Portuguese people were dissatisfied because the royal family did not return from Brazil after the termination of the Peninsular War; and popular insurrections in Lisbon and Oporto, in August, 1820, resulted in the establishment of a liberal constitution, modeled after that of Spain. In 1822 the Portuguese

colony of Brazil became an independent Empire under Dom Pedro, the son of King John VI. of Portugal.

The Portuguese Constitution was overthrown in 1823 by the Apostolic party, which was composed of the clergy and the aristocracy, with the supporters of Dom Miguel, the king's brother, at their head. King John VI. died in 1826, and was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his son, DOM PEDRO, Emperor of Brazil. Dom Pedro, however, soon resigned the crown of Portugal to his infant daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria; appointed his brother, Don Miguel, regent of the kingdom, and granted the Portuguese a liberal constitution.

In 1829 DOM MIGUEL, with the support of the Apostolic party, suppressed the Portuguese Constitution and caused himself to be proclaimed King of Portugal. In 1832 Dom Pedro, who had been compelled the previous year to abdicate his crown in Brazil in favor of his son, Dom Pedro II., returned to Portugal to defend the rights of his daughter. The constitutional party rallied to the support of Dom Pedro; and in 1834, after a bloody civil war of two years, during which Dom Pedro was aided by England and France, the usurper Dom Miguel was forced to renounce his pretensions and to leave the kingdom; whereupon the constitution, which had been suppressed by the usurper, was reëstablished, and MARIA II. was undisputed sovereign of Portugal.

REVOLUTION IN NAPLES.

After the fall of Napoleon I. and the expulsion of the French from Italy, Ferdinand IV., the former King of Naples, was restored to his throne. From the time of his restoration to the Neapolitan throne, Ferdinand exercised a most unmitigated oppression over his subjects.

At length, in July, 1820, the *Carbonari*, an influential political society, excited a popular insurrection in the Kingdom of Naples; and the tyrannical Ferdinand was compelled to grant his subjects a constitution similar in its character to the Spanish Cortes Constitution of 1812.

In October of the same year, 1820, the three crowned heads who formed the Holy Alliance held a conference at Troppau, in Austrian Silesia, where, at the instigation of Prince Metternich, the Austrian Prime Minister, they resolved to suppress the Neapolitan constitution by force of arms. King Ferdinand of Naples, who by invitation met the sovereigns of Austria, Russia and Prussia at Laybach, in January, 1821, agreed to the proposal; and accordingly an Austrian army of forty-three thousand men marched into Naples, and, after several insignificant conflicts, dispersed the revolutionary forces; whereupon King Ferdinand abolished the constitution which he had granted, and resumed his former despotic power. Ferdinand IV. died in 1825, and was succeeded by his son FRANCIS I., who died in 1830, and was succeeded by his son FERDINAND V.

REVOLUTION IN PIEDMONT.

In March, 1821, a military and popular insurrection broke out in Piedmont against the absolute rule of King Victor Emmanuel I. of Sardinia. On the 13th of March, 1821, Victor Emmanuel abdicated the throne of Sardinia in favor of his brother, CHARLES FELIX; and a liberal constitution was also established in Sardinia.

An Austrian army soon entered Piedmont to suppress the constitution. The revolutionists were defeated at Novara, and the Austrian forces occupied the cities of Turin and Alessandria. The Piedmontese constitution was overthrown, and absolute monarchy was reestablished in the Kingdom of Sardinia.

SPANISH AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

For three hundred years Mexico, or New Spain, and most of South America had groaned under Spain's tyranny; the Spanish Americans being forbidden to produce anything not prescribed by Spain, and not being allowed to engage in any manufacturing industry, nor to trade with any nation except Spain under pain of death. Popular insurrections broke out in Mexico and South America in 1810. San Martin freed

Buenos Ayres, Chili and Peru by his victories at Chacabaco and Maypu, in Chili (February 12, 1817, and April 5, 1818); and Simon Bolivar liberated Venezuela, Colombia and Ecuador by his victories at Boyaca and Carabobo, in Colombia (August 7, 1819, and June 24, 1821). The chief revolutionary leaders in Mexico were Hidalgo and Moralos, and afterward Iturbide. Spanish power was forever swept from the American continent by the decisive victories of the Colombians under General Sucre at Junin and Ayacucho, in Peru (August 6, and December 9, 1824). The Spanish Americans received aid from Great Britain and the United States. The Spanish colonies in Central and South America became independent republics; and one of them—Bolivia—was named in honor of General Simon Bolivar. Mexico first became an independent empire under Iturbide, but he quarreled with the Mexican Congress and was driven off in 1823, and afterward returning was shot; and in 1824 Mexico became an independent republic, General Guadalupe Victoria being the first President. Paraguay was ruled by the Dictator, Dr. Francia, from 1812 to 1840. Since the establishment of their independence, Mexico and the South American republics have been constantly distracted by revolutions and civil wars.

The account of these events will be more fully dwelt upon in a subsequent portion of this work, and a mere sketch is given in this connection in order to show the relation of this Spanish American Revolution with the revolutions in Europe during the same period. These Spanish American republics have made but little progress in material prosperity and in free institutions, and are republics mainly in name, their Presidents being mostly dictators. The Roman Catholic religion is established by law in most of them, and Church and State is closely connected. The whites, of Spanish descent, form but a comparatively small proportion of the population; the greater portion of the inhabitants being Indians and mixed races.

THE GREEK REVOLUTION.

For three and a half centuries Greece had groaned under the barbarous yoke of Turkish despotism, but about the close of the eighteenth century a secret society called the *Hetaeria* began to further a desire for Grecian independence.

On the 7th of March, 1821, Alexander Ypsilanti, a Greek, then serving as a general in the Russian army, proclaimed, from Moldavia, the independence of Greece, and at the same time assured his countrymen of the assistance of Russia in their approaching struggle for liberty. But the influence of Prince Metternich, who, at the Congress of Laybach, opposed giving countenance to any revolt against legitimate authority, prevented the Czar Alexander from giving any support to the Greeks, although he was at heart in sympathy with them.

Soon after the proclamation of Ypsilanti, an insurrection against Turkish authority broke out in the village of Suda, in the Morea. The movement rapidly spread over the whole peninsula, and the insurgents declared that their purpose was to defend Christianity and civilization against Mohammedanism and barbarism.

The rage of the Turks became indescribable; and the gray-haired Gregorios, Patriarch of Constantinople, the supreme head of the Greek Church, was hung before his church-door with a number of his bishops, on Easter-day, 1821; while the Greeks in the Turkish capital were massacred or banished.

The *Sacred Band* of the Greeks in Wallachia, under the leadership of Alexander Ypsilanti, was annihilated by the Turks in the sanguinary battle of Dragaschan, on the 19th of June, 1821. The Greeks, like their ancestors at Thermopylæ, fought with the courage of desperation. Ypsilanti fled into the Austrian dominions, where he was seized and kept a prisoner for years.

In August, 1821, the Greeks captured Navarino, and in October following the strong fortress of Tripolizza, where they put eight thousand Turks to the sword. On the 5th and 6th of September, 1821, the

Greek General Ulysses defeated a large Turkish force near the famous pass of Thermopylæ. The peninsula of Cassandra was afterward taken by the Turks, who put three thousand Greeks to the sword and carried many women and children into slavery.

In the beginning of 1822 a Greek Congress assembled at Epidaurus. On the 13th of January a provisional constitution was proclaimed; and on the 27th of the same month a manifesto was issued, announcing the union of the Greeks under a central government, under the presidency of Alexander Mavrocordato. The Greek leaders often quarreled among themselves; but, notwithstanding this, fortune was, in general, on the side of the struggling patriots until the summer of 1825.

In March, 1822, the inhabitants of the beautiful island of Scio rose in revolt and put the Turkish garrison to the sword. In April a force of Asiatic Turks spread over Scio, plundering and massacring the inhabitants, and reducing the beautiful island to a desert. Forty thousand Sciots were put to the sword, and many women and children were sold into slavery. Soon afterward one hundred and fifty Greek villages in Macedonia were destroyed, and many of the inhabitants were put to the sword.

The war was carried on by both parties in the most barbarous manner. Thousands of Greeks were put to the sword by the enraged Turks, and when the Greeks had the opportunity they took a bloody revenge on their cruel foes. Many of the Turkish vessels were blown up by the Greek fire-ships. On the 12th of December, 1822, the strong Turkish fortress of Napoli di Romania surrendered to the Greeks after a furious assault.

On the 20th of August, 1823, a Turkish army of ten thousand men was met and defeated by five hundred Greeks under the heroic Suliot leader, Marco Bozzaris, who was killed in the moment of victory. The last words of this valiant patriot were: "Could a Suliot leader die a nobler death?" In the meantime popular sympathy was

strongly manifested in Europe and America for the Greek patriots, and *Philhellenic* societies were formed to aid the Greek cause; while volunteers flocked to Greece from every part of Europe, among whom was the illustrious English poet, Lord Byron, who died at Missolonghi, April 19, 1824.

During the year 1824 the Turks reduced the strongly-fortified rocky island of Ipsara; but, after two thousand Turks had entered the last fort, the Greeks blew it up and perished with their foes. In 1825 Ibrahim Pasha, son of the celebrated Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, whom the Sultan had induced to assist in the suppression of the Grecian rebellion, landed in the Morea with twenty-five thousand Egyptian troops, and spread desolation throughout the whole peninsula. Ibrahim Pasha captured Navarino, but the Turks were defeated for the third time at Missolonghi.

In the latter part of 1825 Ibrahim Pasha, with twenty-five thousand men, laid siege to Missolonghi. After many fierce assaults had been gallantly repulsed by the Greeks, Missolonghi fell into the hands of Ibrahim Pasha, on the 22d of April, 1826. The Greek garrison of eighteen hundred men cut their way through the lines of the besiegers and fled to Athens. Many of the inhabitants fled from the city when the victorious foe entered, but some were pursued and captured; and those who remained in the city, about one thousand in number, mostly old men, women and children, blew themselves up in the mines, rather than fall into the hands of the enemy. The fall of Athens in 1827 seemed to ruin the cause of the Greeks, but their deliverance was at hand.

The Emperor Alexander I. of Russia died December 1, 1825; and as his brother, the Grand Duke Constantine, had already renounced the Russian crown, his younger brother NICHOLAS ascended the Russian throne, after personally suppressing a bloody insurrection in St. Petersburg in favor of Constantine. The new Czar was favorable to the Greek cause, although his attention was first occupied by a war with Persia,

with which Russia had been at peace since the Treaty of Gulistan, in October, 1813; but the victories of the Russians under General Paskiewitsch over the Persians ended this war by the Treaty of Turkomanshee, February 21, 1828, by which Persia lost still more territory in the Caucasus region, and the Russian frontier was advanced to Mount Ararat and the river Aras, the present boundary between Russia and Persia.



THE EMPEROR NICHOLAS OF RUSSIA.

The death of Lord Liverpool in England, in 1827, was followed by the elevation of the able and enlightened statesman, George Canning, to the head of the British Ministry—a statesman who had not forgotten his youthful dreams or his enthusiasm for the liberation of Greece.

In France the government was obliged to pay some attention to the clamors of the Philhellenists, especially after the horror excited throughout Europe by the bloody massacre of the Janizaries in Constantinople by order of Sultan Mahmoud II., in June, 1826.

At the proposal of the great English statesman and Prime Minister, Canning, England, France and Russia concluded a treaty at London, July 6, 1827, to secure the independence of Greece. To enforce

this treaty, a combined English, French and Russian fleet, under the command of the English Admiral Sir Edward Codrington, was sent to the Grecian waters. The refusal of Ibrahim Pasha to evacuate the Morea occasioned the battle of Navarino, on the 20th of October, 1827, in which the allied fleet totally annihilated the Turkish-Egyptian fleet.

Sultan Mahmoud II. in a rage expelled the ambassadors of the three allied powers from Constantinople, and behaved so insolently toward them that Russia declared war against Turkey, April 26, 1828. A Russian army of one hundred and fifteen thousand men under Count Wittgenstein crossed the Pruth, May 7, 1828, and invaded the Turkish tributary principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Russians were repulsed in an assault upon Brahilov, June 15, 1828, but took that fortress by capitulation, June 20, 1828. By July 2, 1828, the Russians had taken six other Turkish fortresses.

A Russian flotilla attacked the Turkish flotilla at Varna and captured fourteen vessels, August 7, 1828. The Russians under General Geismar routed the Turks at Widin, September 20, 1828. The Russians took Varna by storm, after a siege of two months, October 11, 1828; its garrison having been reduced from twenty-two thousand men to six thousand.

The capture of Varna gave the Russians command of the Turkish coast of the Black Sea; and the Russian Admiral Heyden officially announced the blockade of the Dardanelles, October 15, 1828. The Turks retired into the strong mountain fortress of Shumla, in July, 1828, where they had more than forty thousand men under Hussein Pasha. The main Russian army, forty-five thousand strong, under Count Wittgenstein, marched against Shumla while the operations were going on before Varna; but after the fall of Varna the Russian army fell back from Shumla, October 15, 1828. The Russians laid siege to Silistria in September, 1828, but raised the siege November 10, 1828, abandoning their heavy artillery.

In the meantime the Russians under General Paskiewitsch had achieved a series of brilliant victories in Asiatic Turkey. Although the Turkish losses in Europe and Asia were two principalities, three pashalics, fourteen fortresses and three castles, the Ottoman Porte rejected the terms of peace offered by the Czar Nicholas through the British ambassador, Lord Heytesbury. These terms were a war-indemnity and security against future violation of treaties.

In the meantime Ibrahim Pasha had been compelled by the French fleet and a French army under General Maisson to evacuate the Morea and to restore to his Greek prisoners their freedom, and Count John Capo d'Istria was chosen President of the Grecian States.

In January, 1829, the Sultan received a protocol from the three allied powers, declaring that they took Greece under their own protection, and that they would consider another Turkish invasion of Greece as an attack upon themselves.

Sultan Mahmoud II. prepared for a new campaign against the Russians. Marshal Diebitsch superseded Count Wittgenstein as Russian commander-in-chief, February 21, 1829. Marshal Diebitsch laid siege to Silistria, May 17, 1829, and repulsed an attack by the Grand Vizier's army that day, the Turks losing two thousand killed. A month later—June 17, 1829—Marshal Diebitsch defeated the Grand Vizier in a great battle near Shumla; the Turks losing six thousand killed, many taken prisoners, forty-three cannon, and all their ammunition and baggage. Silistria surrendered to the Russians, June 30, 1829; its garrison of eight thousand men and the armed inhabitants becoming prisoners of war; while two hundred and twenty pieces of artillery, eighty stand of colors, two three-tailed pashas and the entire Turkish flotilla were also taken.

Marshal Diebitsch forced the passes of the Balkan mountains, July 22, 1829, and defeated seven thousand Turks under the Seraskier Abdulrahman, taking four hundred prisoners, twelve cannon and seven

standards. The next day, July 23, 1829, the Russian army captured Mesembria with twenty standards, fifteen cannon and two thousand prisoners; and on the same day the Russians took Acholi with fourteen cannon, ammunition, etc. Upon reaching the Black Sea coast the Russian army was able to coöperate with the Russian fleet under Admiral Greig. Bourgas was taken with ten pieces of artillery and an abundance of military stores, June 24, 1829. Aidos was taken with the entire Turkish camp and its military stores, June 25, 1829. The Russians captured Adrianople, the second city of the Ottoman Empire, August 20, 1829.

By the Peace of Adrianople, September 14, 1829, Turkey recovered Moldavia and Wallachia and all the towns which the Russians had taken in Bulgaria and Roumelia. Moldavia was to have an independent administration and free trade; and Russia was to have free commerce throughout the Ottoman Empire and with all nations at peace with Turkey, and free navigation of the Black Sea. Turkey also agreed to pay a war-indemnity to Russia, besides an indemnification for the losses of Russian subjects, and to acknowledge the independence of Greece.

During the Revolution the Greek leaders often quarrelled among themselves; and in 1831 the Greek President, Count John Capo d'Istria, who, by his selection of bad advisers, had made himself unpopular, was assassinated as he was about to enter a church. The three allied powers—England, France and Russia—having determined to erect Greece into a constitutional monarchy, the crown was bestowed on Otho, a prince of the royal house of Bavaria, who arrived at Nauplia in 1833, and reigned as King of Greece until he was hurled from the throne by the Revolution of 1862.

FRENCH REVOLUTION OF JULY, 1830.

As we have seen, the liberal Ministry which had been forced upon King Charles X. by the voice of public opinion, in August, 1829, was dismissed, and an ultra-

royalist Ministry with Prince Jules de Polignac at its head was appointed. This new Ministry endeavored to strengthen the royal power, and was extremely unpopular with the French people, who accused Polignac and his colleagues of a design for the subversion of popular liberty and the reëstablishment of the ancient despotism; but Polignac blindly persevered in his arbitrary schemes.

At the opening of the French Chambers, on the 2d of March, 1830, the speech from the throne clearly announced the king's determination to overcome by force any obstacles that might be thrown in the way of his government, and contained a threat to deprive the French people of the rights granted them by the Charter. There was a large majority against the Ministry in the Chamber of Deputies; and that body returned a frank reply to the royal speech, declaring that a concurrence did not exist between the views of the government and the wishes of the people. The king, declaring his intention to support his Ministers, prorogued the Chambers; and on the 17th of May a royal ordinance declared them dissolved, and ordered elections for a new Chamber.

In the meantime the king and his Ministers, with the view of overcoming their unpopularity by gratifying the passion of the French people for military glory, declared war against Algiers; the Dey having refused to pay long-standing claims of French citizens, and having insulted the honor of France by striking the French Consul. A naval expedition consisting of ninety-seven vessels, carrying more than forty thousand troops, and commanded by General Bourmont, the Minister of War, sailed from Toulon on the 10th of May, 1830, and on the 14th reached the African shores. The city of Algiers was captured on the 5th of July, 1830, with trifling loss on the part of the French. The Dey fled to Italy, and his treasures fell into the hands of the conquerors.

The news of the capture of Algiers occasioned much rejoicing in France, but did

nothing toward gaining popularity for the Ministry, public feeling being too decided to be thus easily affected. The elections for a new Chamber of Deputies resulted in giving the liberals a much larger majority than they had in the Chamber lately dissolved.

The Ministry now resolved to set the popular will at defiance by measures directly subversive of the constitutional Charter; and on the morning of the 26th of July, 1830, three royal ordinances were issued—the first dissolving the newly elected Chamber of Deputies, the second arbitrarily altering the mode of election, and the third suspending the freedom of the press. To all who were acquainted with the popular feeling, it was apparent that these arbitrary measures, so subversive of popular rights, could only be executed by force; and yet no preparations had been made for this. So blind and infatuated were the king and his Ministers that they did not dream of any resistance on the part of the people. The king went on a hunting excursion, and the Prince de Polignac gave a splendid dinner to his colleagues. In the evening mobs collected in Paris, lamps were demolished, the windows of Prince de Polignac's hotel were broken, and cries of "Down with the Ministry!" and "The Charter forever!" were heard.

On the morning of the 27th, July, 1830, in defiance of the royal ordinance suspending the liberty of the press, the conductors of the liberal journals in Paris printed and distributed their papers as usual; but their types were soon seized and their presses broken by the police. Marshal Marmont, who was placed in chief command of the government troops, endeavored to assist the police in preserving order; and the Ministry declared Paris in a state of siege. The streets were kept clear by the guards for the greater part of the day, and Marshal Marmont wrote to the king that quiet was restored; but during the night the citizens demolished the lamps, procured arms, and barricaded the streets with paving stones torn up for the purpose.

On the morning of July 28th the streets of Paris were filled with armed citizens, who raised the glorious tri-colored flag in every direction. They carried with trifling loss the detached guard-houses, the arsenal and the powder magazine. At nine o'clock the tricolor was seen to wave from the spire of the Church of Notre Dame, and at eleven from the central tower of the Hotel de Ville. Carriages and omnibuses were thrown on the sides of the streets to obstruct the passage of the troops. The troops were exposed to a severe fire from the windows, barricades and street corners. Tiles and stones were hurled upon them from the tops of houses, while oil and boiling water were showered upon them from the windows. The king and his Ministers and Marshal Marmont were greatly surprised when they discovered that what they had at first considered merely a riot had assumed the formidable aspect of a revolution. During the night the pavements were torn up, and the trees in the Boulevards cut down, to raise obstructions for the passage of the troops.

The contest was renewed with terrible fury on the morning of July 29th; and General Lafayette appeared among the insurgents, and assumed the command of the National Guard. At noon several regiments of the line deserted to the people. Thus reinforced, the mob stormed the Louvre and the Tuileries, from the windows of which they opened a tremendous fire upon the Swiss and royal guards. The brave defenders of the throne, unable to make any further resistance to the populace, succeeded only with great difficulty in effecting a retreat; and at three o'clock in the afternoon the Paris Revolution of July ended in the complete triumph of the people. The Ministers now resigned their offices, and the king signed an order for the repeal of the obnoxious ordinances; but it was too late. The Parisians had already resolved that Charles X. should no longer reign. The Deputies to the new Chambers in Paris organized a provisional government, and decreed that the National Guard should be reorganized, and placed under the command of that con-

istent friend of rational freedom, the Marquis de Lafayette.

On the 31st of July, 1830, Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, son of Philip Egalité, accepted the office of Lieutenant-General of

fant grandson, the Duke of Bordeaux. No attention was paid to these proceedings. The Paris mob prepared to march in thousands to Rambouillet, to which place Charles had retired; but he did not wait for their



CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME, PARIS

he French kingdom. On the 2d of August Charles X. formally abdicated the throne of France; and his son, the Dauphin, resigned his rights in favor of the king's in-

coming. Recollecting too well the awful period of 1789, when another Paris mob marched to Versailles, he fled to England, and for a time took up his residence in

Holyrood palace, near Edinburgh. He afterward went to Germany, and died of a broken heart at Goritz, in Austria, November 6, 1836.

In the meantime the newly elected French Chambers assembled in Paris; and, after some debate, it was determined that the government of France should remain a limited monarchy, and the crown was conferred on the Duke of Orleans, who, on the 9th of August, 1830, took the oath to support the constitutional Charter, and ascended the throne of France with the title of *LOUIS PHILIPPE I., King of the French*. Louis Philippe owed his elevation chiefly to the venerable Lafayette, who, believing the French people still unfit for a republic, preferred "a throne surrounded with republican institutions." Presenting the new *Citizen King* to the people, in front of the Chambers, Lafayette exclaimed: "Now we have the best of republics!"

BELGIAN REVOLUTION, 1830.

The Paris Revolution of July, 1830, occasioned a violent shock throughout Europe, and gave the death-blow to the Holy Alliance, which had already received a severe shock by the death of the Czar Alexander I., in 1825. Revolutionary movements occurred in Belgium, Poland, Germany and Italy, which alarmed absolute monarchs, and threatened consequences fatal to the general tranquillity of Europe.

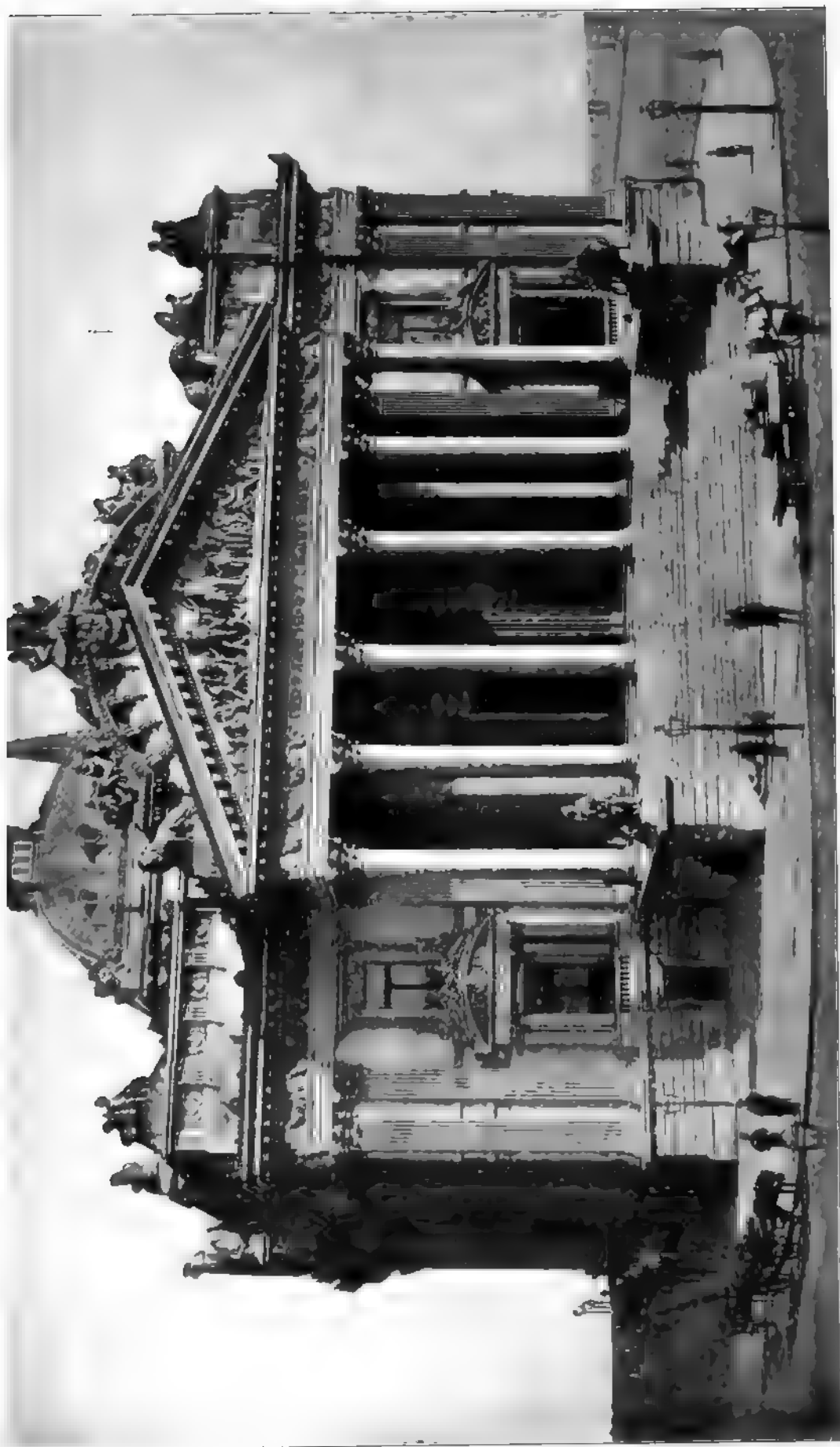
The effects of the July Revolution of Paris first displayed themselves in Belgium. The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, in utter disregard of differences in language, religion and interests, had united Holland and Belgium into one monarchy, designated the *Kingdom of the Netherlands*, under the government of a prince of the House of Orange, or Nassau. From the time of the incorporation of Belgium with Holland, the Belgians suffered the most unmitigated oppression from the Dutch king; and the Hollanders endeavored to force their own language, laws and religion upon the Belgians. The Protestant courts were entrusted with the supervision of the education of the Catholic

youth in Belgium. When the Belgian press denounced the conduct of the Dutch government the writers were fined, imprisoned, or banished from the country. The alliance of the Belgian liberal party with the Catholic Ultramontane party was designated by the Dutch king, in his speech from the throne, as "infamous."

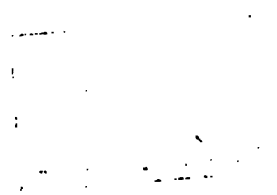
Thinking the opportunity favorable, and encouraged by the success of the Paris Revolution of July, the people of Brussels rose in insurrection on the 20th of August, 1830, and, after an obstinate struggle of four days, expelled the Dutch authorities and garrison from the city. The movement spread rapidly, and in a short time the whole of Belgium was in revolt against the authority of the King of Holland. The Dutch were repulsed in an attack upon Brussels, and the Belgian insurgents proceeded against Antwerp to drive the Dutch from that city. Thereupon the Dutch General Chassé retired into the citadel with his troops, and cannonaded the town for several hours, thus destroying an immense amount of valuable property. This proceeding caused much exasperation in Belgium; and in November, 1830, the Belgian National Congress declared the independence of Belgium, and the exclusion of the House of Orange from the Belgian throne.

While the war between the Dutch and the Belgians was in progress, the representatives of the five great powers—Great Britain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia—held a conference in London, where, after long diplomatic negotiation, it was determined to separate Belgium from Holland.

Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, a relative of the English royal family, and who was shortly afterward married to a daughter of Louis Philippe, King of the French, received the crown of Belgium with the title of *LEOPOLD I., King of the Belgians*. The King of Holland vainly attempted to subdue the Belgians, who were now aided by England and France. On the 23d of December, 1832, the Dutch army which had held possession of Antwerp was compelled to surrender to the French army under Marshal



THE BOURSE, BRUSSELS.



Gerard. Leopold granted his subjects a liberal constitution and the separation of the Church from the State. Since her separation from Holland, Belgium has prospered wonderfully in every branch of industry and social improvement.

WILLIAM I., who had been King of Holland since 1814, abdicated in 1840, and was succeeded by his son WILLIAM II., who died in 1849, and was succeeded by his son WILLIAM III. Leopold I. of Belgium reigned until his death, December 9, 1865, when he was succeeded by his son LEOPOLD II.

POLISH INSURRECTION OF 1830, 1831.

The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, erected Poland into a kingdom, with a Diet and a constitution of its own; but the sovereign power of the kingdom was vested in the Czar of Russia, under the title of *King of Poland*. The Poles were soon disappointed in the hopes which they had entertained that the Emperor Alexander would protect them in the enjoyment of the rights and privileges granted them by the new constitution. Before long the principal offices in Poland were filled with Russians; the article of the new constitution granting freedom of the press was annulled; and publicity of debate in the Polish Diet was abolished. On the death of the Emperor Alexander I., in 1825, and the accession of his brother Nicholas to the throne of Russia, the nominal administration of affairs in Poland was intrusted to a Pole; but all the real power was invested in the Archduke Constantine, the brother of the Emperor-king. Constantine was an unscrupulous tyrant. His despotic and cruel course revived the old spirit of Polish freedom and nationality, and the successful revolutions in France and Belgium in 1830 urged the Poles to a rebellion against the Russian power. Secret organizations were formed, whose object was to bring about the restoration of Polish independence, and the reunion, under one government, of those portions of Poland which had been absorbed by Austria, Russia and Prussia.

On the evening of the 29th of November,

1830, the students of the Cadet school at Warsaw attempted to seize Constantine; while another party summoned the people to arms. Constantine escaped from Poland after a severe conflict, in which several hundred of his guards were killed. The insurgents forced the arsenal at Warsaw, and before the close of the day forty thousand men were in arms. The insurgent Poles established a provisional government, with Adam Czartoryski, General Chlopiki and others at its head; and great enthusiasm prevailed in the Polish capital.

The provisional government at Warsaw appointed Chlopiki dictator; and the Polish Diet, which was hastily assembled, invested Prince Radzivil with absolute power; but the Polish aristocracy, alarmed at the violence of the republican and democratic clubs at Warsaw, opposed every attempt to excite a popular war. The Diet pronounced the deposition of the princely House of Romanoff in Poland; and, on the 5th of February, 1831, after two months of unsuccessful attempts at negotiation, the Czar Nicholas rejecting all terms but unconditional submission on the part of the Poles, a Russian army of two hundred thousand men, under the command of Field-Marshal Diebitsch, appeared in Poland. An indecisive action occurred on the 5th, February, 1831; and on the 25th a desperate engagement occurred between forty thousand Poles under Prince Radzivil and one hundred thousand Russians, and when the shades of night closed the combat the dead bodies of ten thousand Russians covered the sanguinary field. On the night of the 31st of March, 1831, the Polish army under General Skrzynecki fought and routed twenty thousand Russians. The Poles rapidly followed up their advantages, and before the close of April the Russian forces were driven out of Poland.

After concentrating his forces at Minsk, Skrzynecki crossed the Bug and advanced to Ostrolenka, where his army, led by General Bem, encountered an army of sixty thousand Russians, on the 26th of May, 1831. The carnage was frightful. No quarter was given by either party. The Poles were de-

feated with the loss of five thousand men. The victorious Russians also lost heavily, and three of their generals were among the slain.

Owing to the dissensions among the Polish leaders, the insurrection rapidly declined in strength after the battle of Ostrolenka. In June, 1831, both Field-Marshal Diebitsch and the Archduke Constantine met with sudden deaths. The populace of Warsaw ascribed the failure of the revolution to treachery on the part of the aristocracy, thirty of whom were sacrificed to the popular fury. The Polish dictator, Czartoryski, the successor of Chlopiki, fled in terror to General Dembinski's camp; whereupon the Polish Diet invested Krukowiecki with the supreme power.

At length a Russian army of one hundred thousand men, under the command of General Paskiewitsch, advanced on Warsaw. At Wola, the ancient place of the election of the Polish kings, the attacks of the Russians were repulsed. On the 7th of September, 1831, after two days of furious assaults, during which twenty thousand Russians and ten thousand Poles laid down their lives, the cowardly dictator, Krukowiecki, surrendered Warsaw and Praga to Paskiewitsch. The main body of the Polish army retreated from Warsaw and soon afterward dispersed.

The fall of Warsaw was the death-blow to the insurrection, and unfortunate Poland again groaned under the iron heel of Russian despotism. Many of the Polish insurgents retired into voluntary exile in foreign lands; and eighty thousand of those who remained and fell into the hands of the Russians, including generals, soldiers and nobles, were consigned to the dungeons and mines of Siberia in one year.

Poland was deprived of her Constitution, her Diet and her State Council by the *Organic Statute*, and was incorporated with the Russian Empire with a separate government and administration of justice; and Polish nationality and independence seemed extinguished, while the Russo-Greek Church was established in the conquered country.

INSURRECTIONS IN GERMANY, 1831-1833.

The Paris revolution of July also occasioned some revolutionary movements in Germany. The insurrections which took place in Hanover, Saxony and Hesse-Cassel, in 1831, resulted in the establishment of liberal constitutions in those states. In Brunswick the constitution was improved, after the expulsion of the despotic Duke Charles, and the assumption of the government of the Duchy by his brother.

The freedom of the press was introduced into Baden, and the liberals obtained the ascendancy in the Chambers of Southern Germany; but their increasing audacity in speech and in writing, as particularly displayed at the Hambacher festival in Rhenish Bavaria, May 27, 1832, brought about a reaction and restriction.

An effort of a few young madcaps, students, journalists and literary men to disperse the German Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main, April 3, 1833, aided the cause of the reactionary party, thus giving a great blow to the cause of liberalism in Germany, and bringing on a severe persecution of the leaders of the liberal party. The guilty and the suspected were subjected to countless arrests and judicial examinations; and the prisons and the fortresses were filled with political offenders, while multitudes of fugitives were wandering in France and Switzerland. The censorship of the press was resumed with severity, the book-trade was watched, and the privileges of the Estates were circumscribed.

INSURRECTIONS IN ITALY, 1830-1831.

The success of the July Revolution of Paris roused the liberals in Italy to action, but their efforts resulted in defeat. Insurrections which broke out in Bologna, Parma and Modena were suppressed by Austrian troops; and the regents who had been expelled from the latter two states were restored to their governments. In the Papal States the bandits and convicts who were employed in keeping down the revolutionists conducted themselves in so shameful a manner that the Austrian troops marched

into that section to protect the country against its own soldiers. To prevent the Austrians from establishing their own supremacy in the Papal territory, the French, by a *Coup de Main*, seized upon Ancona, which they held for several years.

King Charles Felix of Sardinia died in 1831, and was succeeded by his cousin CHARLES ALBERT, who found his kingdom without an army, and wholly subservient to Austria, whose power in Italy had been vastly increased by the failure of the revolt of 1830. Charles Albert was disposed to pursue a liberal policy toward his subjects, and was even willing to grant them the constitution which he had given them as regent; but he did not dare to do so, as that would have involved him in a war with Austria, for which his kingdom was unprepared.

At this time a new party or secret league, called *Young Italy*, was organized by Joseph Mazzini, for the purpose of freeing Italy from foreign rule and uniting the whole country under one constitutional government. Mazzini was a man of great genius and a brilliant orator. He strove to induce Charles Albert of Sardinia to lead the popular movement and to drive the Austrians from Italy, but the Piedmontese king was afraid to take so bold a step. Mazzini then sought to excite the Piedmontese army to revolt against Charles Albert, but was forced to leave the kingdom. He took refuge in Genoa, whence he led a foolish expedition into Savoy in January, 1833, to inaugurate a revolution. The movement failed, and he fled to London. This expedition so alarmed Charles Albert that he now began to consider the liberals his enemies, and allied himself more closely with Austria and the Jesuits for the purpose of maintaining his authority. The Piedmontese people, indignant at the invasion of their country by Polish and other refugees who followed Mazzini, sustained their king in his reactionary policy; and for the next fourteen years Piedmont submitted quietly to the absolute government of its king.

SPANISH CIVIL WAR OF 1833-1839.

King Ferdinand VII. of Spain—during whose reign the Spanish-American colonies erected themselves into independent republics, after a long and bloody struggle with the mother country—ruled in the most despotic manner, suppressing every germ of constitutional freedom. For the purpose of securing the succession to the Spanish throne to his daughter Isabella, to the exclusion of his younger brother, Don Carlos, Ferdinand VII. abolished the Salic Law, which had prevailed in all Bourbon kingdoms.

When Ferdinand VII. died, in 1833, and his daughter ISABELLA II. succeeded to the throne of Spain, the Carlists, as the adherents of Don Carlos were called, who were numerous in the North of Spain, took up arms and involved the Spanish kingdom in civil war. For the purpose of securing the liberal party in Spain to the support of the young queen, the queen-mother Maria Christina, who acted as regent during her daughter's minority, restored the Cortes Constitution of 1812.

The friends of absolute monarchy sided with Don Carlos. The warlike Basques, in the North of Spain, especially drew their swords for Don Carlos and absolutism, under enterprising leaders, such as Zumalacaregui and Cabrera. Many bloody battles were fought, and the queen-mother received aid from England and France. After the civil war had lasted six years, and about three hundred thousand lives had been sacrificed, the Carlists were subdued. On August 31, 1839, General Espartero compelled the Carlist General Maroto to lay down his arms by capitulation, and thus brought about the general pacification of the Spanish kingdom.

General Espartero quarrelled with the queen-mother soon after the close of the civil war; and after removing her from the regency, in 1841, he obtained control of the government; but he was overthrown in 1843 by General Narvaez, and was obliged to seek refuge in England, whereupon the queen-mother recovered her lost authority. In 1853 a rebellion broke out in Spain in

consequence of the despotic measures of the government; and in 1854 an insurrection in Madrid compelled the queen-mother to flee, whereupon a provisional government under Espartero was formed; but Queen Isabella II. afterward secured control of the government. General O'Donnell afterward directed the Spanish government.

TURKEY AND EGYPT.

MEHEMET ALI, who, as we have seen, became Pasha of Egypt in 1805, and who had fully established his power by his treacherous massacre of the Mameluke chiefs in 1811, did much for the advancement and prosperity of Egypt. In 1818 his armies commanded by his sons subdued the Wahabees, the new Mohammedan sect of Arabia, and reduced that desert land under his sway. In 1819 and 1820 he conquered Nubia, Senaar, Kordofan and Dongola. He organized a powerful army and an efficient navy on the European model, and officered each with European adventurers, mainly Frenchmen. He caused harbors and docks to be constructed, and introduced the manufacture of arms, clothing and other articles into Egypt, and carefully fostered these industries. He gave Egypt once more a firm and despotic government, and that country enjoyed a degree of prosperity and internal tranquillity which it had not experienced for many centuries. In 1825, as we have seen, Mehemet Ali sent his son Ibrahim Pasha with an army and fleet to aid his master, the Sultan of Turkey, in suppressing the Greek Revolution; but his fleet was almost destroyed by the allied English, French and Russian fleet at Navarino, October 20, 1827.

Mehemet Ali's real design was to convert Egypt into an independent hereditary kingdom under his own sway. Immediately after the close of the Greek War for Independence he restored his fleet on a more formidable scale and increased his army. The Ottoman Empire had been seriously weakened by the losses which it had sustained since the beginning of the nineteenth century, and the time appeared auspicious for the execution of his project.

As a reward for his services to his suzerain, Sultan Mahmoud II., Mehemet Ali had been given the pashalic of the island of Crete; but his ambition was not thus satisfied. He therefore demand Syria, but was refused that province by the Sultan. Mehemet Ali accordingly resolved to conquer Syria, and a quarrel with the Pasha of Acre afforded him a pretext for invading that province. He sent an army of forty thousand men under his son, Ibrahim Pasha, an experienced and able general, into Syria. The Egyptian army under Ibrahim Pasha, assisted by the Egyptian fleet, besieged Acre, which surrendered May 27, 1832; after which the Egyptian forces quickly overran Syria and Palestine.

Ibrahim Pasha advanced in a rapid course of victories toward Constantinople, successively defeating the Turkish armies sent against him at Ems, in Upper Syria, July 6, 1832; at Beylan, in Cilicia, near the ancient battle-field of Issus, July 29, 1832; and at Koneih, in the province of Anatolia, in Asia Minor, October 29, 1832. This last victory made Ibrahim Pasha master of almost the whole of Asia Minor; and he was preparing to advance on the Turkish capital, which was only saved from capture by the timely intervention of the Czar Nicholas of Russia in the Sultan's behalf.

England, France and Russia compelled Mehemet Ali to accept a peace which left him in possession of the pashalics of Egypt and Crete, and annexed to them the pashalics of Jerusalem, Tripoli, Aleppo, Damascus and Adana, but which left him a vassal of the Sultan of Turkey. This treaty, which was signed July 8, 1833, was a great victory for the Pasha of Egypt, and a great humiliation for Sultan Mahmoud II., being virtually a surrender of all the countries which the Turks had acquired by the conquests of Sultan Selim I. in 1517.

Mehemet Ali steadily pursued his design of converting his dominions into an independent hereditary monarchy, thus arousing the anger of Sultan Mahmoud II. Mehemet Ali refused to pay the customary tribute to the Sultan, and had the boldness

to remove the Turkish guards from Mohammed's tomb at Medina and to appoint his own Arab soldiers in their stead—an act which was an open repudiation of the Sultan's authority as the Khalif of Islam. This bold proceeding brought matters to a crisis; and, after some efforts at negotiation, Sultan Mahmoud II. sent a peremptory order to the Pasha of Egypt to restore the Turkish guards to the Prophet's tomb, to promptly pay his annual tribute, and to acknowledge himself the Sultan's vassal. Mehemet Ali bluntly rejected the Sultan's demands, whereupon the Sultan declared war against his rebellious vassal, A. D. 1839.

A large and well-equipped Turkish army under Hafiz Pasha crossed the Euphrates, and fought a battle with the Egyptian army under Ibrahim Pasha at Nisibis, on the Euphrates, June 25, 1839. Entire regiments in the Turkish army deserted to the Egyptians; and those which remained loyal to the Sultan's standard were routed with the loss of all their artillery, baggage and stores. An Ottoman fleet which left Constantinople, July 6, 1839, to attack Alexandria, reached the latter city a week later, and was at once surrendered to the Egyptians by its treacherous commander.

The Ottoman Empire was again at the mercy of the victorious Pasha of Egypt; and Constantinople would have been taken had not England, Austria, Prussia and Russia come to the rescue of the young Sultan ABDUL MEDJID, the son and successor of Mahmoud II., who had died a few days after the defeat of his army at Nisibis, June, 1839. France was anxious to place Mehemet Ali on the Turkish throne; but the other four Great Powers, by the Quadruple Treaty of London in the summer of 1840, sustained the claims of the young Abdul Medjid. The British, Austrian and Turkish fleets bombarded Beyreut and Acre, thus expelling the Egyptian garrisons from those Syrian forts and aiding the Ottoman forces to recover Syria for the young Sultan. Mehemet Ali was forced to restore the Ottoman fleet and to withdraw his armies from Crete and Asia Minor.

By a treaty signed February 13, 1841, Egypt was left in possession of Mehemet Ali and his successors in the direct line, but all his conquests in his first war with Sultan Mahmoud II. were restored to the Sultan. The Pasha of Egypt was to pay a specified annual tribute to the Sultan of Turkey, and to render him military and naval aid when summoned to do so.

Mehemet Ali continued to rule Egypt until 1848, when his mind gave way, and he was succeeded by his son IBRAHIM PASHA, who died two months afterward, November 9, 1848, and was succeeded by his nephew ABBAS PASHA.

RUSO-CIRCASSIAN WARS.

For more than thirty years, from 1827 to 1859, the Russians were engaged in a struggle with the warlike Circassians of the Caucasus region, who were led by their hero-prophet Schamyl. The most famous events of this struggle were the Russian storming and capture of Himri, October 8, 1832, and the taking of Akulgo by storm by the Russians in 1843, on which occasion they lost twelve thousand killed and wounded. In 1845 Prince Woronzoff was put in command of the Russian armies in Circassia. Prince Woronzoff was defeated by Schamyl near Tiflis in 1853, while another Russian army was also defeated by a Circassian force. The Russians finally effected the conquest of Circassia by the capture of Schamyl in 1859.

REFORMS IN ENGLAND.

During the whole of the reign of George IV., A. D. 1820-1830, Great Britain was agitated by the question of Parliamentary Reform. The new king, while Prince Regent, had been called the "First Gentleman in Europe," because of his polished manners. He was fifty-eight years of age when he became King of Great Britain and of Hanover, on the death of his father George III., January 29, 1820. He was well educated, but had given himself up to a life of pleasure and to the society of gay and vicious companions. His folly and extravagance had as early as 1794 plunged him in-

to a debt of seven hundred thousand pounds sterling.

In about a month after his accession the violent temper of popular feeling in England was shown by the Cato Street Conspiracy in London, contrived by some desperate characters with Arthur Thistlewood at their head for the assassination of the whole Ministry, and which was punished by the hanging of Thistlewood and four of his accomplices.

While Prince of Wales, George IV. had been induced by his father to marry his cousin, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel. This marriage occurred in 1795. The prince soon separated from his wife, and accused her of unfaithfulness to her marriage-vows. After becoming king his first act was to renew this charge in the most public manner, and to cause the Ministry to introduce a bill into Parliament to grant him a divorce from his wife and to degrade her on charges of misconduct while abroad on the Continent of Europe. Queen Caroline was as popular with the English people as her royal husband was odious to them, and their intense resentment at the attack upon her character and her title compelled the House of Lords to abandon the bill of divorce. The queen had been ably defended by Henry Brougham, afterward Lord Brougham.

The king, less sensitive to public sentiment than the Lords, determined to oppose her coronation as his consort, and was supported in this step by his Privy Council. The Queen was equally resolved to maintain her rights; and on the morning of the coronation day, July 19, 1821, she appeared at the doors of Westminster Abbey and demanded admission, but was refused. This humiliation hastened her death. She fell seriously ill, and died of a broken heart, August 7, 1821. She left directions that her body should be taken to Germany and interred with those of her ancestors at Brunswick, and that the following inscription should be put upon her coffin: "Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured Queen of England."

The king's animosity was not appeased by

his wife's death, and her body was subjected to insult. The procession which attended the body to Harwich on its way to the Continent was ordered not to pass through London; but the people were determined that it should pass through the city, and carried their point by tearing up the pavements and placing trees across the roads, thus bringing on a series of conflicts in which two persons were killed.

In the meantime the British had been extending their power in the East. They had taken the coast of the island of Ceylon from the Dutch in 1796, and afterward took Trincomalee from them. The British conquest of the native Kingdom of Kandy in 1815 gave the English possession of the whole island of Ceylon, which has always been a crown colony. In 1819 a British colony was established at Singapore, in the peninsula of Malacca, as a market for the rich productions of the East Indies. The island of Java, which the British took from the Dutch in 1811, was restored to the latter in 1815; but the British retained the Cape of Good Hope, which they had finally conquered from the Dutch in 1806, and also retained the island of Mauritius, in the Indian Ocean, which they had taken from the French.

After the death of Lord Cornwallis, in 1805, Sir Hilario Barlow became Governor-General of British India, and was succeeded by Lord Minto in 1807. In 1813 the Marquis of Hastings became Governor-General, and during his administration of ten years the freebooting Pindarries and the Ghoorkas of Nepal were subdued.

During the administration of Lord Amherst as Governor-General of British India, which began in 1823 and lasted five years, the English East India Company became involved in a war with the Burmese in 1824, which ended in 1826 in giving the British additional territories. In 1828 Lord William Cavendish Bentinck became Governor-General of British India and in 1836 began the administration of Lord Auckland. In Upper Guinea, in Western Africa, the British colonies were severely harassed in 1824 by the Ashantees, who defeated and

murdered the British governor, Sir Charles McCarthy; but the Ashantees were forced to accept peace in 1827.

Lord Castlereagh, who had been created Marquis of Londonderry, and who had been Secretary of Foreign Affairs in Lord Liverpool's Ministry, committed suicide in 1822, and was succeeded in office by the talented George Canning, under whose able leadership the earlier progressive policy of the second William Pitt returned. In foreign affairs Canning's first act was to break with the Holy Alliance. He asserted the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of other nations; and in accordance with this principle he sent troops in 1826 to defend Portugal against Spanish intervention, and also recognized the independence of Spain's revolted colonies in Mexico and South America.

In home affairs Canning's influence was seen in the new strength acquired by Catholic Emancipation, and in the passage of a bill by the House of Commons in 1825 for the relief of Roman Catholics. With the entry of his friend, Mr. Huskisson, into office, in 1823, commenced a commercial policy founded on a conviction of the benefits of free trade, which afterward resulted in the repeal of the Corn Laws. The new drift of public policy divided the Ministry, and this division showed itself openly at Lord Liverpool's death in 1827.

Canning became Lord Liverpool's successor as Prime Minister; but the Duke of Wellington refused to serve under him, as did also the Chancellor, Lord Eldon, and the Home Secretary, Robert Peel. Canning's last official act was his intervention in Turkish affairs in behalf of the struggling Greeks by the conclusion of a treaty of alliance with France and Russia, at London, July 6, 1827. Canning's Ministry was broken up by his death four months after its formation. A new Ministry under Lord Goderich was formed on Canning's principles, but was at once weakened by its position on foreign affairs; and the blow inflicted upon Turkey by the allied English, French and Russian naval victory at Navarino,

October 20, 1827, was not popular with the English people, and was fatal to Lord Goderich's Ministry, which was forced to resign in 1828.

A purely Tory Ministry under the great Duke of Wellington then came into power, with Robert Peel for its chief support in the House of Commons, and was generally viewed as a promise of utter resistance to all further progress or reform; but several great measures of reform made it memorable. In 1828 Parliament repealed the Test and Corporation Acts, passed during the reign of Charles II., and which required the receiving of the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper according to the rights of the Church of England as a necessary qualification for office. This triumph, which was achieved after a brief Parliamentary struggle, greatly raised the hopes of the Roman Catholics for the repeal of the laws which excluded them from Parliament. A motion made in their favor by Sir Francis Burdett was carried in the House of Commons by a majority of six, but a similar motion was defeated in the House of Lords.

The agitation of the question of Catholic Emancipation continued during the remainder of the year 1828. *Brunswick Clubs* were formed by the advocates of Protestant ascendancy to resist all further concession, while the Catholic leaders and their friends strenuously exerted themselves to render the cause of Catholic Emancipation popular. The agitation in Ireland, kept up by the *Catholic Association* formed by Daniel O'Connell, threatened that country with civil war; as the most intemperate harangues were made at the meetings of the Brunswick Clubs and the Catholic Association.

The sudden display of strength by the Irish Catholics, who elected Daniel O'Connell to represent the County Clare in Parliament, brought the agitation to a point where the Ministry of the Duke of Wellington had to choose between concession and civil war; as O'Connell was sustained by the whole Catholic population of Ireland, and as he demanded the removal of all

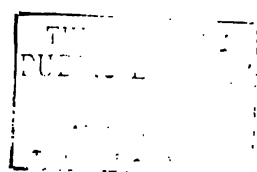
Catholic disabilities, threatening civil war as the alternative. The danger was very great, and both parties were surprised to hear Catholic Emancipation recommended in the speech from the throne at the opening of the Parliamentary session of 1829. The Duke of Wellington introduced a bill which he said was the only means to avert civil war, and which admitted Roman Catholics to Parliament and to all civil and military offices under the crown, except those of regent, Lord Chancellor in England and Ireland, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland and some others. This *Catholic Emancipation Act* passed both Houses of Parliament, and became a law upon receiving the royal assent, April 13, 1829.

King George IV. died at Windsor Castle, June 26, 1830. As his only child, the Princess Charlotte, was dead, he was succeeded on the thrones of Great Britain and Hanover by his brother William Henry, Duke of Clarence, who thus became WILLIAM IV. The new king had passed his early life in the navy, and was wholly without political experience. He ascended the British throne at a time of great trouble. The popular discontent in England was very great, and manifested itself in the burning of farm-ricks and in the breaking of machinery. There was a demand from all parts of the kingdom for Parliamentary Reform. The French Revolution of 1830 gave great encouragement to the friends of Reform in England. King William IV. was personally in favor of the Reform movement; but the Ministry of the Duke of Wellington refused all concession, and was consequently compelled to resign; whereupon a Whig Ministry—the first in twenty years—came into office under Earl Grey, pledged to Parliamentary Reform.

The necessity for Reform was very great. New towns, some of them, like Manchester and Birmingham, among the wealthiest and most prosperous in the kingdom, and which had sprung up in the course of a century, were wholly unrepresented in Parliament; while the old and rotten boroughs, some of which had but a few inhabitants, elected

members of the House of Commons. Such boroughs, as we have already observed, were usually owned by some large landowner, who controlled the elections to suit himself and openly sold his influence. Most of the small towns were controlled by a clique, which could be bought and sold. As we have already seen, the Pitts had made unsuccessful efforts to reform these evils, the aristocratic opposition being too powerful for them to overcome. The cheap publications of William Cobbett in 1816, which advocated a total reform of this system of abuses, revived the cry for Parliamentary Reform, the demand for which had steadily increased until it had now become too powerful to be resisted.

On March 1, 1831, Lord John Russell, of Earl Grey's Cabinet, introduced a Reform Bill in the House of Commons which deprived fifty-six "pocket boroughs" of representation and assigned the one hundred and forty-three members which they returned to counties or large towns which had hitherto been unrepresented in Parliament, established a ten pound household qualification for voters in boroughs, and extended the county franchise to leaseholders, copyholders and tenant occupants of premises of certain values. The defeat of this bill in the House of Commons caused a dissolution of Parliament by the Ministry and the election of a House of Commons overwhelmingly in favor of the Reform Bill. This new House of Commons passed the Reform Bill, but the House of Lords rejected it; whereupon a great excitement followed throughout England, while great riots and incendiary fires occurred at London, Bristol, Derby and Nottingham, in the fall of 1831. The English people formed *unions* to refuse payment of taxes until their just demands were conceded. The Reform Bill again passed the House of Commons; whereupon the Lords who had opposed it, warned by the excited condition of the kingdom, withdrew and allowed the measure to pass; and the *First Reform Bill* finally received the royal assent June 7, 1832, thus becoming a law. By this important though bloodless revolution—this





QUEEN VICTORIA ON HER CORONATION DAY.

triumph of the cause of popular freedom—the right of suffrage was extended to half a million British subjects, and the English middle class was invested with the supreme political power in the British Empire.

The Reform Parliament—the object of so many hopes and fears—assembled January 29, 1833, and passed an act abolishing slavery in the British colonies, allowing the masters a compensation of twenty million pounds sterling for the eight hundred thousand slaves thus emancipated in the British West Indies, August, 1833; thus effecting a result for which the great philanthropists, William Wilberforce and Thomas Clarkson, had labored for a lifetime, Wilberforce dying a few months afterward, 1833. The Reform Parliament also passed an act in 1833 abolishing the commercial monopoly of the English East India Company and throwing open the trade of British India to all British merchants. The Reform Parliament also passed a New Poor Law in 1834, to check the growing evils of pauperism.

But the violence of the Reform Parliament—especially that of the great Irish orator and agitator, Daniel O'Connell, who demanded a repeal of the Parliamentary Union of Ireland with Great Britain—did much to justify the fears of its enemies and to create a reaction throughout the kingdom against it. Even King William IV., who had hitherto been a Whig, like his brother and predecessor, George IV., went over to the Tories. On the resignation of Earl Grey, in 1834, the Whig Ministry was reorganized under Lord Melbourne. This Ministry was soon dismissed by the king, and was succeeded by a Tory Ministry under Sir Robert Peel, November, 1834; but another general election returned a Whig majority in the House of Commons, and thus restored Lord Melbourne's Ministry to power, April, 1835.

In 1835 Parliament passed the Municipal Corporations Act, restoring to inhabitants of towns the rights of self-government, of which they had been deprived since the fourteenth century. In 1836 Parliament passed the General Registration Act, the Tithe Commutation Act to remedy the

constant quarrels over tithes, and the Civil Marriage Act to remove one of the principal grievances of Dissenters. A system of national education commenced in 1834 by a small annual grant for the establishment of schools was developed in 1839 by the creation of a Committee of the Privy Council for educational purposes and by the steady increase of educational grants.

The opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway in 1830 by its projector, George Stephenson, was the beginning of the great railway system of Great Britain, which was soon adopted in every part of the kingdom, and which gave a mighty impulse to trade.

King William IV., the "Sailor King," died at Windsor Castle, June 20, 1837, after a short reign of seven years; and, as his two children, his daughters by his wife, the Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, had both died in infancy, he was succeeded on the throne of Great Britain and Ireland by his niece, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, the only child of his brother Edward, Duke of Kent, and who thus became Queen VICTORIA. As females were excluded from the throne of Hanover by the Salic Law, Victoria's uncle, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, the fifth son of George III., ascended the throne of that German kingdom; and the crowns of England and Hanover, which had been worn by the same individual from 1714 to 1837, have ever since remained separated. The reign of William IV. was the only one in English history that was not disturbed by a foreign war or by an insurrection in the English dominions, and during which there was no execution for treason.

Queen Victoria, born in 1819, was only eighteen years of age when she ascended the British throne, in 1837, but was popular with all classes of her subjects because of her admirable qualities. On February 10, 1840, she married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, one of the small Saxon principalities of Germany. Prince Albert was a man of many virtues, and of ability and good common sense, qualities

which endeared him to the English people, and enabled him to retain their affection and confidence until his death, in 1861.

The Whig Ministry of Lord Melbourne continued to lose popular favor after Queen Victoria's accession, and its difficulties increased each year. O'Connell maintained an incessant agitation in Ireland for the Repeal of the Union, and that country could only be held down by Coercion Acts. In spite of the impulse given to trade by the introduction of railway communication, England was still suffering from distress. The discontent of the poorer classes gave rise to riotous outbreaks of the Chartists in 1839. The Chartists, who broke out into open riot at Newport, in Monmouthshire, embodied their demands in a *People's Charter*, as follows: Universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual Parliaments, equal electoral districts, the abolition of property qualification for members of Parliament, and compensation for members. In Canada a quarrel between the Governor and House of Assembly of Lower Canada ended in a revolt headed by Louis Joseph Papineau in Lower Canada and William Lyon Mackenzie in Upper Canada, in 1837-'38, the object of the insurgents being the achievement of Canadian independence; but after a few slight skirmishes between the government troops and the insurgents the rebellion was quelled. In 1841 the two Canadas were united into one province by act of Parliament.

The vigorous but meddlesome foreign policy of Lord Palmerston, a disciple of Canning, in supporting Donna Maria da Gloria as sovereign of Portugal against Dom Miguel, and Isabella as Queen of Spain against Don Carlos, by a Quadruple Alliance with France, Spain and Portugal created general public dissatisfaction in England, which was heightened by the Quadruple Alliance with Russia, Prussia and Austria in support of Sultan Mahmoud II. of Turkey against his rebellious vassal, Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, who began a second revolt against his suzerain in 1839, and again invaded Syria and advanced in a rapid course

of victories toward Constantinople. The bombardment of Beyreut and Acre by the British navy in 1840 forced Mehemet Ali to leave Syria in the Sultan's possession, in 1841.

The English people were also dissatisfied with the Ministry's foreign policy regarding Afghanistan. Under the erroneous impression that Russia contemplated some act of hostility toward British India through the instrumentality of Persia, an Anglo-Indian army under Sir John Keane was marched into Afghanistan in 1839. The British occupied Candahar, stormed and took Ghiznee, occupied Cabul, deposed Dost Mohammed, the reigning sovereign, and put Shah Soojah in his place.

The discontent with the Ministry was further aggravated by a war with China which broke out in 1839, in consequence of the destruction of large quantities of opium smuggled into China by British merchants, and the refusal of the Chinese authorities to compensate the British merchants for the opium thus destroyed. A British squadron under Admiral Elliott captured the island of Chusan, July 5, 1840, and under Captain Elliott it took the Bogue forts by storm January 7, 1841. The remaining Bogue forts were taken by storm February 26, 1841. The capture of Canton by the British under Captain Elliott and Sir Hugh Gough, in May, 1841, was followed by a suspension of hostilities, when the Chinese ransomed the city by the payment of six million dollars.

The wars in Syria, China and Afghanistan made Lord Melbourne's Whig Ministry unpopular, and a dissolution of Parliament and an appeal to the English people resulted in returning the Tories to power, Sir Robert Peel becoming the head of the new Tory Ministry. In the new Parliament the Tories, who now took the name of *Conservatives*, had a majority of almost a hundred members.

A great disaster befell the British arms in Afghanistan. On November 2, 1841, a fierce rebellion broke out at Cabul headed by Akbar Khan, son of the deposed Dost

Mohammed. The British ambassadors, Burns and MacNaghton, were murdered, as were many of the British military officers; while Shah Soojah was dethroned and Dost Mohammed raised to the Afghan throne. Finding themselves in the midst of a hostile people, the British made a disastrous retreat. The British troops and camp followers—numbering twenty-six thousand persons—were nearly all killed or made captives.

In 1842 Lord Auckland was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Lord Ellenborough, under whom the British arms retrieved their honor. An Anglo-Indian army under General Pollock was sent into Afghanistan; and this force, with the aid of the British force under General Nott from Candahar, captured Cabul and rescued the British officers and ladies who had been held as prisoners at Bameean. After destroying the fortifications of Cabul, the British evacuated Afghanistan.

Sir Henry Pottinger, who superseded Captain Elliott, renewed hostilities in China, and captured Amoy, Shanghai and Ningpo in the fall of 1841, defeated the Chinese in the battle of Tsekee in March, 1842, and captured Chapo in May, 1842, and Chin-kiang-foo, July 2, 1842. The British fleet then proceeded against Nankin, where a treaty of peace was signed August 29, 1842. By the Treaty of Nankin, China opened five of her ports—Canton, Amoy, Ningpo, Shanghai and Foo Choo-foo—to the commerce of Christendom, paid a war-indemnity of twenty-one million dollars, and ceded the island of Hong Kong to Great Britain. This "Opium War" is chiefly important because it opened China to commercial intercourse with the rest of the world. The Treaty of Nankin between Great Britain and China was followed by commercial treaties between France and China, and between the United States and China. Thus a new era was opened in the history of the oldest nation of the world, which now for the first time broke down the barriers of its exclusiveness.

Sir Robert Peel, the new Prime Minister, at once set to work vigorously to remedy the

evils from which Great Britain was suffering. Order was restored to the finances by the repeal of a number of oppressive and unnecessary taxes and by the imposition of an income tax. Ireland was still on the brink of rebellion in consequence of O'Connell's agitation for the repeal of the Union. In 1843 Sir Robert Peel's Ministry caused O'Connell to be arrested, tried and convicted on a charge of sedition, and imprisoned. He was released upon an appeal to the House of Lords; but his conviction destroyed his influence with his countrymen, and his prestige thenceforth rapidly declined.

The treacherous conduct of the Ameers of Scinde toward the British troops in their retreat from Afghanistan, and their subsequent effort to break off their engagements with the British Indian government, brought an Anglo-Indian army under Sir Charles Napier into their territory in 1843. A defeat of the Ameers near Hyderabad was followed by the annexation of Scinde to the British Indian Empire. The Mahrattas, who displayed a treachery similar to that of the Ameers of Scinde, were defeated in the battles of Maharajpooor and Punniar, near Gwalior; and their territory was also annexed to the British Indian Empire.

In 1844 Lord Ellenborough was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Sir Henry Hardinge, who had lost an arm in the battle of Waterloo. In 1845 the Sikhs of the Punjab crossed the Sutledge and invaded the British Indian territories, but were defeated by the British under Lord Gough at Moodkee, December 14, 1845. The Sikhs were also defeated in the bloody battles of Ferozeshah, Aliwal and Sobraon, early in 1846; and by a treaty on February 10, 1846, the Sikhs paid indemnities to the British Indian government.

The Tory or Conservative Ministry of Sir Robert Peel was called upon to face the most difficult and dangerous questions of home politics since the Reform agitation. The prohibitory duties imposed upon foreign grain by Parliament in 1815 in the selfish interest of the English landowners still con-

tinued, and were sustained by a considerable party, which declared that English agriculture ought to be protected and that the English people ought to be forced to depend upon their own country for breadstuffs by maintaining those high duties upon the importation of foreign grain. But there was another and larger party who maintained that the Corn Laws simply imposed a tax upon the consumer for the benefit of the producer, and advocated absolute free trade with all the world.

Richard Cobden and other English statesmen organized the *Anti-Corn-Law League* in 1839 for the dissemination of free trade views by means of speeches and publications. This association gradually educated English public sentiment in favor of free trade. Sir Robert Peel had entered office pledged to continue the protective system, but he now became convinced of its inexpediency. In 1846 the emergency caused by the failure of the potato crop in Ireland and the harvest in England forced Sir Robert Peel to introduce a bill into Parliament for the repeal of the Corn Laws. The bill passed both Houses of Parliament, and became a law upon receiving the royal assent, thus opening Great Britain to the importation of foreign grain and other articles of food free of duty.

Sir Robert Peel was driven from office by the resentment of his own party because of the repeal of the Corn Laws, and was succeeded by a Whig Ministry under Lord John Russell, which remained in office until 1852. The new Ministry devoted itself to the carrying out of the free trade policy in every department of British commerce; and since then the maxim of the Anti-Corn-Law League, to "buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest," has been accepted as the law of British commercial policy. The credit for the triumph of free trade in Great Britain is mainly due to Richard Cobden, one of the ablest political economists that England has ever produced.

Another failure of the potato crop in Ireland in 1847 caused a terrible famine in that unhappy country. Although the nobility

and gentry and wealthy middle class of England, and benevolent individuals in the United States, contributed liberally to the relief of the starving poor of Ireland, thousands perished from famine and its attendant diseases.

The Revolutions of 1848 which convulsed the Continent of Europe encouraged the Chartists to make a demonstration in favor of Reform in London, April 10, 1848, for the purpose of presenting a monster petition to Parliament; but the government took the alarm, and twenty thousand workingmen who marched in procession from Kensington Common were prevented from recrossing the bridges by a quarter of a million Londoners who had enrolled themselves as special constables to prevent the dreadful "Red Republican" demonstration, and the affair passed off quietly. Since that time Parliament has abolished the property qualification for members of the House of Commons, made the suffrage in Great Britain almost universal, and established the vote by ballot—three of the chief reforms demanded by the Chartists. A feeble attempt at rebellion in Ireland in 1848, under Smith O'Brien's leadership, was easily quelled by a few policemen.

In 1848 Sir Henry Hardinge was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by the Earl of Dalhousie. In the same year a second war with the Sikhs of the Punjab broke out in consequence of the annexation of the Punjab to British India, the young Sikh king being pensioned from his hereditary revenues. The Sikhs were decisively defeated by the British under Lord Gough in the battles of Chenah and Chillianwallah, in January, 1849, and Goojerat, February 21, 1849; whereupon the Sikhs submitted. The famous diamond known as the *Koh-e-noor*, or "Mountain of Light," which for centuries had been supposed to exert a mysterious power in preserving the dominion of its possessor, was taken from the Sikhs and added to Queen Victoria's crown-jewels.

Sir Henry Lawrence undertook the difficult task of reconciling the Sikhs to British rule; and his kindness and justice restored

order and prosperity in five years to the Punjab, which had suffered for ages from war and bloodshed. Even the acquiescence of the warlike chiefs was gained, and their sons flocked eagerly to the English colleges to prepare themselves for honorable positions in the British civil or military service. The great mass of Hindoos and Mohammedans of the Punjab who had been under the dominion of the Sikhs readily submitted to the British rule, which gave them greater security of life and property than they had ever before enjoyed. The work of pacification was accomplished so effectually that the Sikhs were thenceforth loyal subjects of Queen Victoria, and but for their steadfast loyalty to British authority during the great Sepoy mutiny of 1857 the British dominion in India would have been overthrown.

Besides her empire in India, England has been building up another great dominion in the East. As we have seen, she took formal possession of the great island of Australia in 1788 by establishing a penal colony at Botany Bay, in the south-eastern part of the island. The shores of this large island, or continent, were explored by the Dutch in the early part of the seventeenth century; but its interior was unknown to Europeans until Captain Cook's visit to its south-eastern coast had suggested the possibility of finding room and sustenance upon its vast untilled domain for the surplus, and particularly the criminal, population of Great Britain.

The English fleet of eleven ships which brought a thousand persons, chiefly convicts, in January, 1788, arrived at Sydney Cove, in what has been called the finest harbor in the world. Having lost a store-ship during the voyage, this colony suffered great hardships at first, and succeeded in barely establishing itself. As the convict settlers had forfeited all civil rights by their crimes, their labor belonged to the British government; but they proved to be useful pioneers, as they cleared the wilderness, made roads, built bridges and constructed many other public works. They were joined by others from time to time, and the work was carried on vigorously and successfully,

thus greatly lightening the tasks of the free settlers.

Some of the earlier governors of the English colony in Australia lacked wisdom and benevolence; but under the wise and humane administration of Governor Macquarie, from 1810 to 1821, the convicts embraced the opportunity held out to them to reform; and many who had been driven into crime in the overcrowded cities of England by the cruel pressure of poverty amended their lives and became useful citizens, some of them being chosen to offices of trust in the colony.

The thirty years following Governor Macquarie's administration were followed by a large emigration of free settlers from England to Australia, and many new towns were founded. The practice of transporting convicts to Australia and Van Diemen's Land was discontinued, but thousands of the honest poor of Great Britain were aided by the British government to emigrate, and so many persons of character and wealth were induced to colonize in that vast and remote island by the increased facilities for travel and hope of gain that the population increased more than tenfold. Wool became the great staple of the colony, and was exported in large quantities. Australian wool has been found equal to the finest fleeces of Spain or Germany, and the flocks of sheep in the vast island then already numbered many millions. The original colony of *New South Wales* was divided; the northern part being called *Queensland*, and the southern part being named *Victoria*. The colonies of *South Australia* and *West Australia* were afterward organized.

The discovery of gold in the south-eastern provinces of Australia in May, 1851, still further increased the population of the island. This discovery at first threatened the ruin of the colony; as flocks, herds and farms were abandoned for the search of the precious metal. Ships in port were deserted by their crews, who were also smitten with the gold fever. All regular industries ceased for the time, and food reached famine prices;

but the consequent peril and distress at last brought the colonists to their senses, and they resumed their ordinary pursuits. Society was reorganized, and security returned. The colony took a new start, and has ever since grown with a wonderful rapidity. The multitude of new immigrants who constantly came from England added to the commercial prosperity of the country.

Melbourne, the capital of Victoria, and the largest city of Australia, founded in 1837, is a handsome and flourishing city of about three hundred thousand inhabitants, and is the seat of a university. Sydney, the old capital of New South Wales, though older than Melbourne, is smaller, but is also a flourishing city and the seat of a university, and has a metropolitan bishopric. The population of Australia is rapidly increasing; and railroads, telegraphs and other institutions of the West are constantly adding to the wealth and prosperity of that remote land, which seems destined eventually to become the seat of a great Anglo-Saxon nation. Australia and Tasmania—the latter formerly called Van Diemen's Land—are now connected with London by a submarine telegraph cable.

Each of the Australian provinces has a governor, a Ministry and a Parliament of its own; and the free institutions of the mother country are firmly planted in that distant and flourishing dominion of England in the Eastern world, as such institutions are in every other part of the globe in which the Anglo Saxon race plants itself.

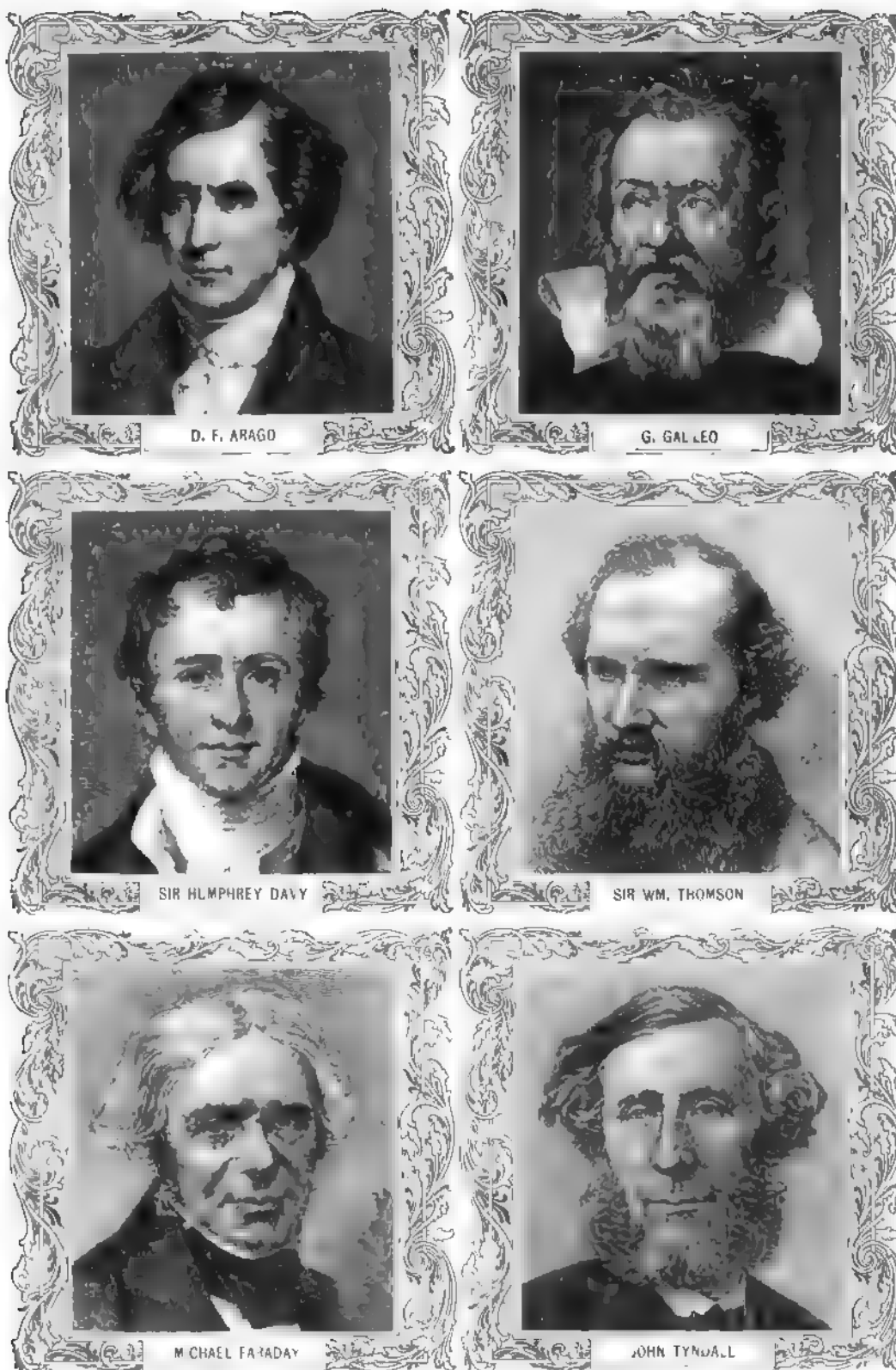
Tasmania is also a thriving British colony. The three islands of New Zealand—which are antipodal to the British Isles, and which comprise an area larger than those European islands—have become the seats of eight flourishing English colonies. Wellington is the chief town and the capital of the English colonies in those remote islands, which are unsurpassed by any country in the world for richness of soil, for healthfulness of climate and for grandeur and variety of scenery. These islands are rich in coal, copper, iron and gold.

The New Zealand Islands were discovered by the Dutch in 1642, and the first Euro-

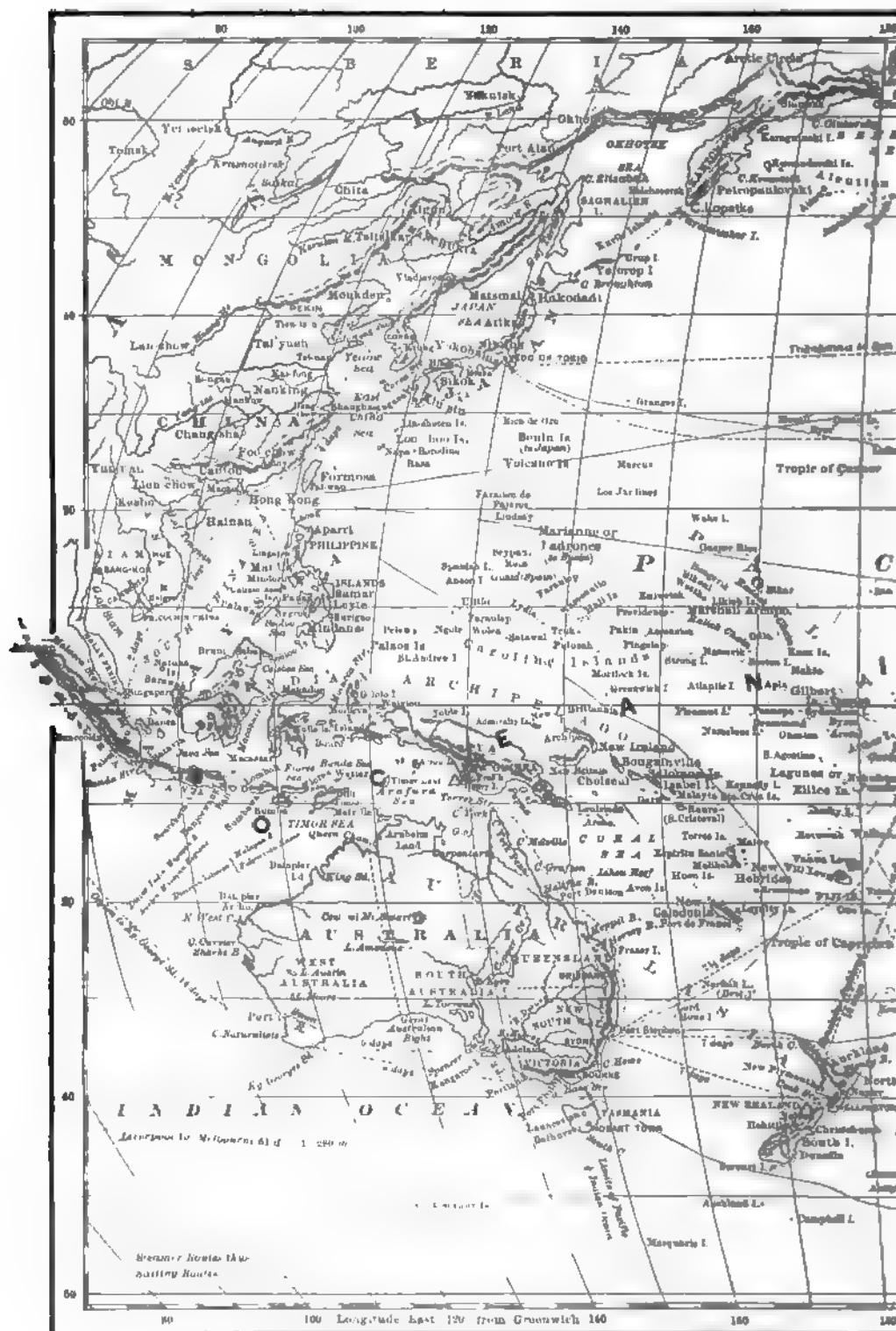
pean settlements were made there by deserters from whale-ships visiting the South Pacific. More permanent settlers were attracted by the fine timber of its forests; and since 1814 English missionaries introduced Christianity and the elements of civilization among the Maoris, or native New Zealanders, after which cannibalism and all the worst features of paganism very speedily disappeared. At the present time nearly all the Maoris are nominally Christians. Most of them are able to read and write, and some are even highly educated, while newspapers are printed in the Maori language.

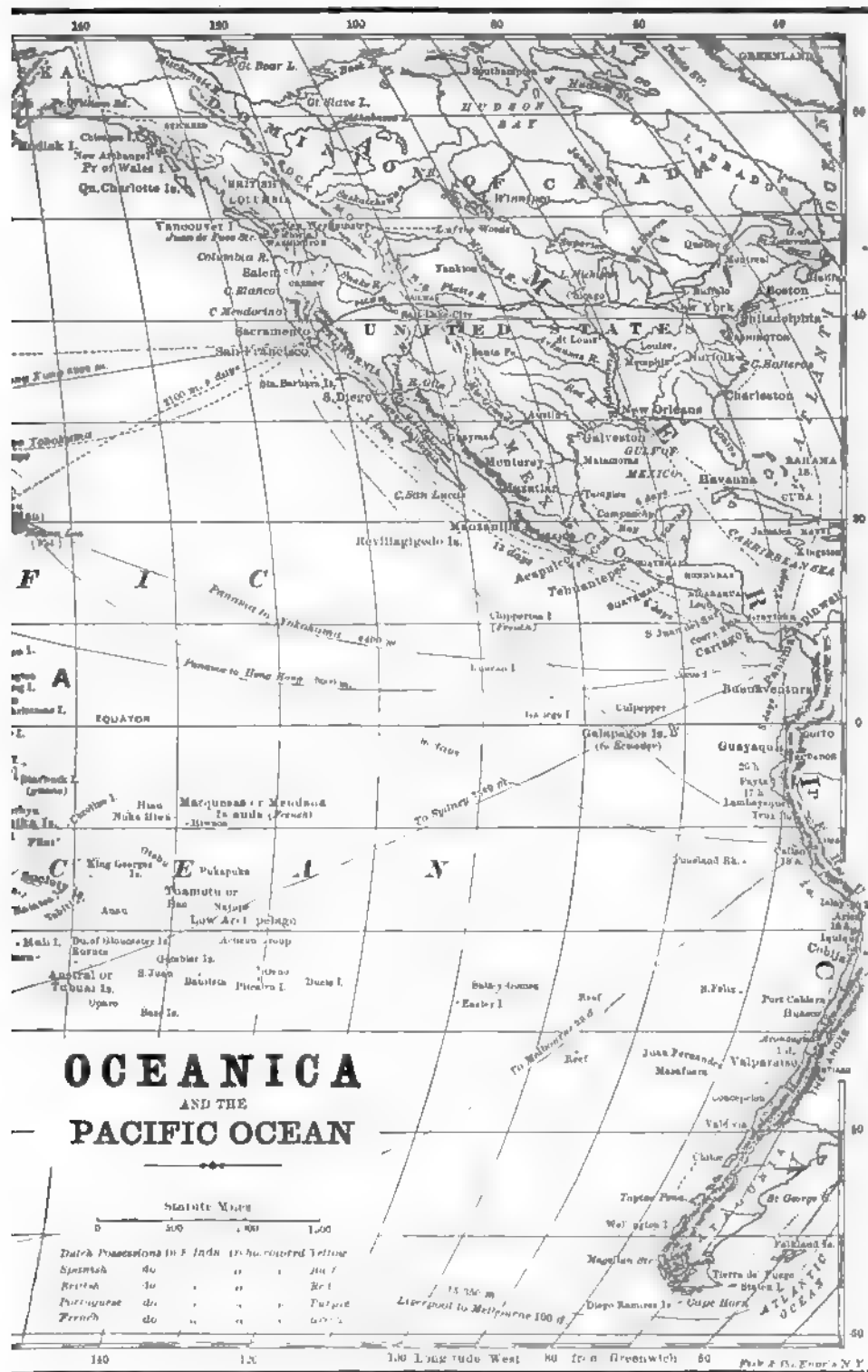
In 1840 the Maori chiefs of the two larger of the New Zealand Islands acknowledged the suzerainty of Queen Victoria; but a four years' war, from 1843 to 1847, was caused by disputes concerning the title to lands; and hostilities have been renewed at various times within the last quarter of a century. The English have found valiant foes in the brave Maori race, because of their native intelligence, their skill in the use of fire-arms, and their knowledge of inaccessible mountain-fastnesses; but they are fast diminishing in number, so that they will doubtless be extinct in the near future, when the population of New Zealand will be wholly English, and those islands will also be the seat of a great Anglo-Saxon community.

Private enterprise led to another settlement in the Eastern seas. The coast of Borneo was explored in 1838 by James Brooke in his own yacht. This enterprising Englishman formed the project of civilizing the savage tribes of that large East India island, and also of clearing its rivers and bays of the pirates who had so long preyed upon the commerce of the East Indian seas. He assisted the Rajah of Sarawak in suppressing a rebellion of his subjects, so gaining the confidence of the Sultan of Borneo that he was intrusted with the government of the province. The natives of Borneo were surprised and conciliated by an administration wiser and more beneficent than any which they had hitherto experienced.



GREAT PHYSICISTS





With the assistance of a British frigate and her boats, Brooke waged a war of extermination against the pirates, thus rendering such service to East Indian commerce that the British government appointed him its regent in Borneo. The adjacent small island of Labuan was annexed to his dominion in 1847, becoming an important English naval station in those remote Eastern seas, particularly since the discovery of great deposits of coal.

The Feejee Islands came into England's possession in 1874, when the natives placed themselves under Queen Victoria's protection and sent her their great war-club, which for centuries had been used as a scepter by their chiefs.

Southern Africa—which the British wrested from the Dutch during the Napoleonic wars—has also become a flourishing British possession; and Cape Town—the capital of the English colony of the Cape of Good Hope—has become the way-station of vessels sailing between Europe and the far East.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS PHILIPPE.

Louis Philippe's government, erected upon the unstable foundation of the sovereignty of the French people, was exposed to many attacks, both from the Legitimists, or partisans of the elder branch of the Bourbons, and from the republicans. Only the bourgeoisie, or prosperous middle class, who, being intent upon gain and the peaceable enjoyment of their earnings, could find its safety and object in a constitutional monarchy, were satisfied with the "Citizen King;" and Louis Philippe depended upon that class for support. But, as he neglected to give the less wealthy class of citizens any share of political power by extending the suffrage, he did not have many adherents. He did not know how to win the hearts of the French people by greatness of mind and noble actions. As he possessed immense wealth, he made use of his exalted station to constantly increase his property, and thus incurred the reproach of selfishness, avarice and cupidity—a reproach which also attached in a greater or less degree to his Coun-

cilors, Ministers and other officials, who were accused of covetousness and venality; thus infecting his entire government with the stain of corruption.

The bourgeoisie, or middle class, had loudly appealed to the lower ranks of the French people to support the Charter against the tyrannical ordinances of Charles X; but when the Legitimist monarchy was overthrown, and the aid of the lower classes was no longer needed, they were expected to relapse into their previous condition. The bourgeoisie also hated the peerage, and sought all the political power for themselves. But there were some men among them who entertained more liberal ideas, among whom were Dupont de l'Eure, Lafitte and others, who were thorough republicans. Louis Philippe himself professed the most liberal sentiments, saying publicly on one occasion: "I am but a bridge to arrive at a republic."

But the "Citizen King's" real feelings were with M. de Broglie and M. Guizot, who opposed concession of freedom to the French people, wished to strengthen the royal prerogative, and regarded the Revolution of July, 1830, as having been effected simply for the reestablishment of the Charter. Some of the most zealous republicans, considering themselves betrayed by the election of the "Citizen King," felt disposed to unite with another class of the French people, composed mainly of unoccupied and dissatisfied young men, who denounced what they considered Louis Philippe's treachery, and aimed to excite a war of opinion throughout Europe. Amid all these elements, the throne of the King of the French stood for a long time tottering, supported by a weak combination of royalists and bourgeoisie, maintaining its ascendancy by hollow concessions, and only developing itself by artifice.

The capture of the Ministers of the de-throned Charles X. gave the severest trial of strength to Louis Philippe's government. The "Citizen King" made no effort to arrest these delinquents, and would have gladly allowed them to leave the country; but four

of them were discovered at some distance from Paris as they were seeking to escape under false passports, and were brought back to the capital by zealous patriots. The government was obliged to send them to the Chamber of Peers for trial, and that body condemned them to lifelong imprisonment. The excitement which their arrest had caused produced the most formidable riots in Paris, which it required the National Guard three days to suppress.

The Paris republicans were extremely violent in their measures, and many of them were fanatical. Frequent attempts to assassinate the king, made by half-witted persons, who, upon being brought to trial, openly derided all constituted authority, and who were identified with the republican party by its enemies, brought discredit upon that party, thus obliging it to remain silent.

The Legitimists likewise injured their cause by an insurrection in the South of France, which was immediately suppressed by the government. The Duchess of Berry, whose son, the Duke of Bordeaux, was the legitimate heir to the French crown, attempted to excite a Legitimist rising in La Vendée in the winter of 1831; but she was betrayed by one of her followers and cast into prison, where she gave birth to a daughter, and was obliged to confess a secret marriage to an Italian nobleman. She was at once permitted to retire to Sicily amid the general ridicule of the public, thus obliging her partisans to remain quiet, and thus ending the first effort to establish "Henry V." on the throne of his ancestors.

The republicans also gave Louis Philippe's government much trouble. A sanguinary republican outbreak at Lyons in 1831 was suppressed with difficulty, and the government caused the prisoners taken in the insurrection to be banished or imprisoned for long terms. A republican outbreak in Paris in 1832, at the funeral of General Lamarque, lasted five hours, and was only suppressed after great loss of life.

The republicans thereafter refrained from further acts of violence, but made constant efforts to increase the number of their parti-

sans by diffusing their opinions in journals and by means of secret societies. The journal *Nationale*, under the editorship of Armand Carrel, and, after his death in a duel, of Armand Marrast, was the much persecuted and much punished organ of the republican party.

But the republicans soon divided. The moderate republicans sought only to attack Louis Philippe's government and aimed at revolutionizing the affairs of state; but others, like Proudhon, declared property to be robbery, and threatened hostility to all who were in possession of anything; while others, like Louis Blanc, flattered the self-love and self-respect of the working-classes by a high estimate of their functions and importance, advocated the equality of capital and labor, and demanded better payment and greater security to labor from the state. These men endeavored to revolutionize social relations and to put in practice the doctrines of Socialism and Communism, as advocated by Fourier and Proudhon. Their watchwords were "Liberté, Egalité and Fraternité;" and the essence of their doctrine was hatred to the bourgeoisie. These Communistic and Socialistic ideas spread and increased. The members of the Socialistic secret societies sought the king's life, but Louis Philippe escaped eight attempts at assassination with wonderful good fortune.

The French government's energy in its intervention in Belgian affairs, forcing the Dutch garrison at Antwerp to capitulate, gained it a great degree of popularity at home. Although France joined England, Spain and Portugal in a Quadruple Alliance to support the claims of the infant Queen Isabella II. of Spain, Louis Philippe secretly allowed Don Carlos to travel from London through France to Spain without informing his Prime Minister, Marshal Soult, who considered this treatment an indignity, and therefore resigned office. His successor, Marshal Gerard, pursued the same policy. The frequent insurrections had filled the prisons of France; and Marshal Gerard attempted to have a general

amnesty granted for all political offenses, and resigned when the king disapproved of his course, October, 1834.

A new Ministry under Guizot and Thiers then came into power; but, as this Ministry did not possess the confidence of the Chambers, it was dissolved in February, 1835. The Chambers chiefly manifested their opposition to the Ministry by refusing to provide for the payment of twenty-five million francs to the United States as indemnity for French spoliation on American commerce during Napoleon's wars, although a treaty had been made to that effect in 1831. President Jackson's hostile attitude speedily brought the French Chambers to terms, and the new Ministry succeeded in carrying an act providing for the payment of the indemnity.

On July 28, 1835, while King Louis Philippe was reviewing the troops of the line and the National Guard under arms in Paris, a terrific explosion from an infernal machine killed Marshal Mortier, General Lachasse and twelve other persons, and wounded about thirty others; but the king and his three sons escaped almost miraculously. The contriver of the machine was Fieschi, a Corsican, who was seized immediately, and was guillotined February 19, 1836.

The Ministry sought to make capital out of this attempted regicide, and induced the Chambers to pass three laws at their next session greatly restricting popular liberty. One of these laws was directed against the press. Another allowed jurors to vote by ballot, and provided that a mere majority should in future be necessary to convict, instead of two-thirds, as hitherto. A third law provided for the constitution of courts of assize and the treatment of contumacious prisoners.

At the beginning of 1836 the Minister of Finance reported a large deficit in the public revenue, and suggested an increase of taxation or a reduction of the interest on the public debt from five to three per cent. As the capitalists, who supported Louis Philippe, held most of the debt, the king preferred an increase of taxation; but, as the

Chambers were unwilling to impose new burdens on the French people, the second Ministry of Marshal Soult was succeeded by a new Cabinet under Louis Adolphe Thiers, February 22, 1836. Thiers boldly supported the Republic of Cracow, the Bey of Tunis and the queen-regent Maria Christina of Spain; but, as King Louis Philippe refused to intervene in Spanish affairs, on account of the reëstablishment of the Spanish Constitution of 1812, Thiers resigned in September, 1836, and was succeeded by a new Ministry under Count Molé, who strove to preserve peace with foreign powers and internal tranquillity. The ex-Ministers of Charles X. and many others who were imprisoned for political offenses were pardoned.

The Duke of Reichstadt, the imbecile son of Napoleon I., and whom the Bonaparte family recognized as Napoleon II., having died in 1832 at the age of twenty-one, Prince Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the great Emperor Napoleon's nephew, became the heir of the Bonaparte interests. This prince was the son of Louis Bonaparte, Napoleon's brother, and his wife Hortense Beauharnais, the daughter of Josephine. On October 29, 1836, this Bonaparte prince attempted to excite a revolt of the garrison of Strasburg for the avowed purpose of overthrowing the Orleanist monarchy and reëstablishing the Bonapartist Empire; but the troops refused to join him, and he was arrested and sent by way of South America to New York.

He returned to Europe, and took up his residence in Switzerland, whence the French government attempted to expel him; but he voluntarily left that country, in order to avoid involving it in war on his account. He made a second attempt to overthrow Louis Philippe's government by landing at Boulogne, August 6, 1840. Armed and uniformed, he led his followers into the town, carrying his hat on the point of his sword, while his followers shouted: "Vive l'Empereur!" Some of the garrison were told that Louis Philippe had been dethroned by a revolution, and were about to place

themselves under the prince's command, when their captain awoke and rushed out of his quarters, and restored order by shouting: "Vive le Roi!" The prince fired a pistol at the captain and wounded a private soldier, but the people now sided with the garrison. The young Bonaparte and some of his followers attempted to escape by swimming to the steamboat which had brought them; but boats were put after them, and the prince and many of his party were captured and securely imprisoned in the castle of Boulogne. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte was sentenced to lifelong imprisonment in the fortress of Ham, whence he escaped to England in May, 1846.

The refusal of the Republic of Mexico to indemnify France for the losses sustained by French subjects during the internal troubles of that republic led to a bombardment of the city of Vera Cruz and the strong castle of San Juan de Ulloa by a French fleet under Rear-Admiral Baudin, who obtained possession of the city and castle, November 28, 1838. Mexico declared war against France; but the mediation of Mr. Pakenham, the British ambassador to Mexico, led to an amicable settlement of the difficulties.

When Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, threw off his allegiance to the Sultan of Turkey in 1839, and conquered Syria, France, under M. Thiers, who was again Prime Minister, demanded that Mehemet Ali should be allowed to retain Syria and Egypt; but England insisted that Mehemet Ali should restore Syria to the Sultan, and induced Austria, Prussia and Russia to enter into a Quadruple Alliance with her by a treaty at London, in 1840, without consulting France on the question. In pursuance of the Quadruple Treaty, an English, Austrian and Turkish fleet bombarded Beyreut and Acre, and forced Mehemet Ali to evacuate Syria; but he was allowed to retain Egypt in independent hereditary possession for himself and his posterity.

The French regarded the Quadruple Treaty as an act of treachery on England's part, and considered their nation insulted.

The French gave way to violent expressions of feeling and avowed a desire for war with England. The Ministry manifested the same warlike spirit, and King Louis Philippe consented to an increase of the French army to six hundred and thirty-nine thousand men. M. Thiers resumed the plan for the fortification of Paris, which had before been rejected by the Chambers; and the city was soon surrounded with an enceinte and a system of detached forts. But the king refused to allow his Prime Minister to denounce the Quadruple Treaty of London formally to the Chambers; whereupon Thiers resigned, and was succeeded by a new Ministry under Marshal Soult, but whose master spirit was M. Guizot, October, 1840.

M. Guizot settled the quarrel with England; and, as a peace-offering, Great Britain consented that the Emperor Napoleon's remains should be removed from St. Helena to Paris. They were disinterred, and conveyed to France by a French squadron under the command of the Prince de Joinville, the son of King Louis Philippe. The squadron arrived at Cherbourg, December 8, 1840, and thence to Havre, whence they were conveyed up the Seine to Paris, where they were interred, with the most imposing ceremonies and in the presence of a vast multitude, in the Hotel des Invalides, December 15, 1840, as already noticed.

The Duke of Orleans, King Louis Philippe's eldest son, the heir to the French throne, died July 13, 1842, from the effects of being thrown from his carriage. He left two sons, the Count de Paris and the Duke de Chartres. The Count de Paris, born in 1838, thus became the heir to the French throne.

M. Guizot, who directed the policy of the French government from 1840 until the Revolution of February, 1848, continued the fortification of Paris, and coincided fully with Louis Philippe's wish to preserve the peace of Europe. By every means in his power he preserved France from European hostilities, brought about an exchange of visits between King Louis Philippe and Queen Victoria, and promoted the king's intrigues for the aggrandizement of the

Orleans dynasty and for its establishment by intermarriages with other royal courts of Europe.

M. Guizot's domestic policy was characterized by pride, tyranny, blindness and a constant succession of encroachments upon the liberties of the French people. During the entire term of his administration, M. Guizot continued the work of fortifying Paris, until the entire city was surrounded with a girdle of impregnable fortifications, the guns of which were expected to serve equally well in repelling a foreign foe and in crushing any revolt in Paris. Secure in the pride of his power, King Louis Philippe boasted that he held France in the hollow of his hand; and Guizot continued to rule, well satisfied with the apparent success of his policy, and convinced of the truth of his own saying that an unpopular government is the most successful.

In 1846 the Spanish marriages caused a coolness between the French and English governments. Queen Isabella II. of Spain desired a husband. The British government wished her to marry Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. Louis Philippe desired to strengthen his own dynasty by intermarriage with that of the Spanish Bourbons, and selected her own cousin, Don Francisco d' Assis, Duke of Cadiz, as a husband for Queen Isabella II. England strenuously opposed this match, but the French king's policy triumphed. The Queen of Spain married her cousin, October 10, 1846; and on the same day the Infanta Louise of Spain was married to the Duke of Montpensier, Louis Philippe's youngest son. These royal marriages deeply offended Great Britain, and coolness and suspicion characterized the relations of France and England thenceforth until the downfall of Louis Philippe.

During the whole of Louis Philippe's reign—a period of seventeen years—France was engaged at an enormous cost of blood and treasure in supporting her colonists in Algiers against the indefatigable Arab chieftain, Abd-el-Kader. This redoubtable warrior, although frequently defeated, expelled from his territories and deprived of his au-

thority, continued to annoy the French colony by his bold raids and restless enterprise. To secure the peace of the French colonists, the French government was obliged to keep a force of almost a hundred thousand men constantly under arms in Algiers.

In 1844 Muley Abderrahman, Emperor of Morocco, formed an alliance with Abd-el-Kader; but the French defeated the united Arab and Moorish forces in the great battle of Isly, while the French navy bombarded the Moorish ports of Tangier and Mogadore, thus compelling the Emperor of Morocco to renounce his alliance with Abd-el-Kader and make peace with France.

In 1845 the French under General Pelissier inflicted a dreadful act of vengeance on the Ouled Riahs, a tribe of Kabyles, one of the Berber nations, who had never been subdued. The Ouled Riahs fled to their mountain cave on Pelissier's approach. The French commander then caused fagots to be piled up against the entrance to the cave, and informed the natives that these fagots would be set on fire unless they came out and surrendered their arms and horses. They refused at first, but afterward replied that they would surrender if the French would retire to a distance. Pelissier rejected this condition, and caused fire to be set to the fagots. The French heard dreadful noises in the cavern. Some of the Kabyles were for submission. Others were as stubbornly for martyrdom. The latter prevailed, but some of the unfortunates escaped. The French commander again exhorted the Kabyles to surrender, but they stubbornly refused. Some women tried to escape; but their husbands and others shot them in the act, firmly resolved that all should suffer martyrdom together. Pelissier then ordered the fire to be put out, and sent a flag of truce into the cavern; but the natives drove away the bearer of the flag with a shower of musketry. The French then rekindled the fire, and the appalling cries of the victims were heard echoing through the windings of the cavern, but gradually these sounds died away. When the fires were extinguished the French entered the cavern, where they

found the bodies of a thousand human beings—men, women and children—who had died amid suffocating smoke and profound darkness, trampled under foot and piled in heaps. Only thirty-seven escaped, and the Ouled Riahs were exterminated.

Abd-el-Kader's opposition ended only with his surrender to the French at the close of 1847. In violation of the pledge of the French commander, the captured Arab chieftain was conveyed to France and imprisoned in the chateau of Amboise. After being held in captivity for a long time, he was finally released and transported to Turkey. The surrender of Abd-el-Kader completed the French conquest of Algiers, which became the French province of *Algeria*.

THE SCANDINAVIAN KINGDOMS.

In the meantime the Scandinavian kingdoms remained unshaken by the revolutionary tempests which disturbed the other states of Continental Europe. Frederick VI. of Denmark died in 1839, leaving the Danish crown to his son CHRISTIAN VIII., who died in 1848, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK VII., who gave his subjects a constitution, since which time Denmark has been a constitutional monarchy.

Sweden's history since the fall of Napoleon has been peaceful and uneventful. We have alluded to the election of the French Marshal Bernadotte, Napoleon's old comrade, as Crown Prince of Sweden in 1810; and also to the cession of Norway to the King of Sweden by the King of Denmark in 1814. Sweden and Norway have since been separate independent kingdoms under one sovereign, and the king must reside half of each year in each of his two kingdoms. The Storthing, or legislature of Norway, is composed of representatives of the four Estates of the kingdom—nobles, clergy, burghers and peasants—and is in some respects the most democratic assembly in Europe. Upon the Death of Charles XIII., in 1818, Bernadotte became King of Sweden and Norway with the title of CHARLES XIV. He died March 8, 1844, and was succeeded by his son OSCAR I.,

who died in 1859, leaving the crowns of Sweden and Norway to his son CHARLES XV., who died September 18, 1872, and was succeeded by his brother OSCAR II.

ABSOLUTISM AND LIBERALISM IN GERMANY.

The German governments obtained a complete triumph; but they outraged the people's sense of justice by the use which they made of their victory, especially when, upon the accession of Queen Victoria to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland, in June, 1837, the crowns of Great Britain and Hanover were separated for the first time since 1714, and her uncle ERNEST AUGUSTUS became King of Hanover. This king abolished the constitution which his predecessor had granted to the Estates of his kingdom, and restored absolutism. Undismayed by the opposition which this arbitrary proceeding occasioned, Ernest Augustus required an oath of allegiance from all the officers of the crown. Seven professors of the Göttingen University, among whom were the brothers Jacob and William Grimm, refused to comply with the king's demand, whereupon they were deprived of their chairs, and some of them were banished from the country. When the Estates of Hanover were incompetent to pass resolutions from a deficiency of numbers, the absentees were replaced by election from the minority. These measures produced a deep gulf between the people and the government in Hanover, and the people were profoundly dissatisfied with the "police state." The government was denounced by means of the press, literature and poetry; and the people joyfully saluted every opposition to the state officials.

Amid all these contests and divisions, the aspirations for national and political unity ran through the whole public life of the German people; and for the realization of this desire Prussia came forward in 1827 to assist by establishing the Zollverein, or Customs Union, the foundation of German unity.

The triumph of absolutism in Germany was mainly owing to the influence of the two great German powers—Austria and

Prussia. Since 1815 Prince Metternich, the Prime Minister of the Emperor Francis I., had been the real ruler of the Austrian Empire, and he exerted himself resolutely for the maintenance of despotism. He remained at the head of the Austrian government after the death of Francis I., March 2, 1835, and the accession of his weak son, FERDINAND I., directing the affairs of Austria until the Revolutions of 1848.

Frederick William III. of Prussia died June 7, 1840, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK WILLIAM IV., who commenced his reign by granting an amnesty to all political offenders, and whose language and conduct at the beginning of his reign induced his subjects to believe that he was the constitutional king they had long hoped for. He made Berlin the chief center of German learning and science, and did much to improve and adorn his capital. He also paid much attention to the welfare of his subjects, but he held fast to absolute government. His subjects vainly appealed to him to grant a constitution, reminding him of his father's promises. At a *United Diet*, composed of a union of the various provincial diets of Prussia, April 11, 1847, he would not grant a constitution under any circumstances, thus extinguishing the last hope of the Prussian people.

In the United Diet at Berlin, in spite of all the restrictions contained in the patent, so violent an opposition was manifested, previous promises were so eloquently referred to, the just claims of a civilized nation to a free press and other political privileges were so eloquently urged, that the old system of government seemed no longer tenable. The Prussian people proudly sustained the proceedings of an assembly which exhibited such brilliant oratorical powers and such a fullness of intelligence and judgment. While the educated and the wealthy were following with great interest the internal struggles in Church and State, and viewing anxiously the troubles in trade, where a series of bankruptcies had deprived thousands of their worldly possessions, famine invaded the huts of the poor, who were unable to procure pro-

visions on account of the increase in the price of the necessaries of life.

The terrible distress which produced pestilence in Upper Silesia, and which caused scenes of Irish misery in many trading and manufacturing centers of Germany, along with the exciting literature in the hands of the lower classes, produced a widespread popular feeling, which at length developed into general insurrections at Stuttgart, Munich and other towns of Germany. These disturbances were soon suppressed by the military and the police, and a plentiful harvest and the benevolence of the rich soon put an end to the temporary distress; but the increasing inequality in property and in the enjoyments of life were now revealed in their fullest extent for the first time, and men gazed with horror at the misery and wretchedness of the lower classes.

The popular disaffection was aroused to its highest degree by the conduct of King LOUIS I. of Bavaria, who had succeeded his father Maximilian Joseph I. on the latter's death in 1825, and who had now surrendered himself to the wiles of Lola Montez, a Spanish courtesan, and had been led by her into acts of folly and extravagance. The Ultramontane party, which had ruled the old king for many years, quarreled with this courtesan whom the king had created Countess of Landsfeldt, and was suddenly menaced with loss of political power. Louis I. dismissed the Ministry of Abel and the leaders of the Ultramontane party in the Bavarian universities. This produced a disturbance among the Bavarian people; and when King Louis I., in his indignation at the students for sustaining the Ultramontane party and not showing the respect to the insolent courtesan that he required, ordered the University of Munich to be closed and commanded the students to quit the place, an insurrection broke out, which forced King Louis I. to recall the suspension and to dismiss the Countess of Landsfeldt.

CIVIL WAR IN SWITZERLAND.

During this period there was great enmity in Switzerland between the Catholics and

Protestants, and between the conservatives and the radicals. In the Canton of Aargau the radical government had suppressed the eight monasteries within its territory as "meeting-places of rebellion," and had confiscated their property. The protests of the seven Catholic cantons—Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zug, Freiburg and Valais—produced no effect upon the Swiss Diet. The division increased when the Ultramontane government of Lucerne, with the support of the people of the canton, called in Jesuits to superintend the education of the youth, and repelled the radicals, who desired to effect a revolution by means of a volunteer expedition. The contest then developed into a desperate struggle between Jesuitism and radicalism.

The seven Catholic cantons demanded punishment of the volunteers, legal protection against similar undertakings, and the restoration of the monasteries of Aargau; and when their demands were rejected they formed a *Sonderbund*, or "special confederation," for mutual defense against internal and external attacks. The radicals, who, by means of the *Putsche*, had a majority in the Diet at Vaud, Geneva and other places, caused the passage of a resolution dissolving the *Sonderbund* as incompatible with the general government of Switzerland, and banished the Jesuits.

As the members of the *Sonderbund* refused to submit to the decisions of the Diet, an appeal was made to arms, thus involving Switzerland in civil war. Contrary to expectation, the struggle was soon over. A federal army under General Dufour subdued Freiburg and Lucerne with little resistance, whereupon the other Catholic cantons readily submitted. They were obliged to dissolve the *Sonderbund*, to banish the Jesuits, to change their respective cantonal governments, and to pay the expenses of the war.

France, Austria and Prussia offered their mediation when too late. The French found the *Sonderbund* already dissolved; and when it became known that M. Guizot, the French Prime Minister, took the part

of the Jesuits, the dissatisfaction with Louis Philippe's government in France increased. The Swiss took advantage of the situation to remodel their federal constitution and to establish a stronger central government.

COMMOTIONS IN PORTUGAL.

In Portugal the reign of Maria II. was disturbed by a succession of revolutions. That of 1846-'47 would have deprived her of her crown but for the intervention of England, France and Spain.

AGITATION IN ITALY.

The hope for Italian unity and liberty still blazed forth. Besides the radical party of Young Italy, there was a moderate party composed of the best men of Piedmont, who proposed to accomplish the same purpose by a peaceful revolution of public sentiment. This party looked to King Charles Albert of Sardinia to lead them to success. This party also existed in Tuscany. Although the Italian press was trammelled by state control, a number of able writers advocated their principles in political works, essays, novels and poems, and strove to rouse a determination in the Italians to become a free and united nation. The Pope and the Austrians were denounced as the foremost oppressors of Italy, the Pope being but the instrument of the Emperor of Austria, to whom he was indebted for his throne. The chief of these patriotic Italian writers were Cesare Balbo, the Abate Gioberti, Massimo d' Azeglio, Giuseppe Giusti, the Marquis Gino Capponi, Baron Bettino Ricasoli and Alessandro Manzoni.

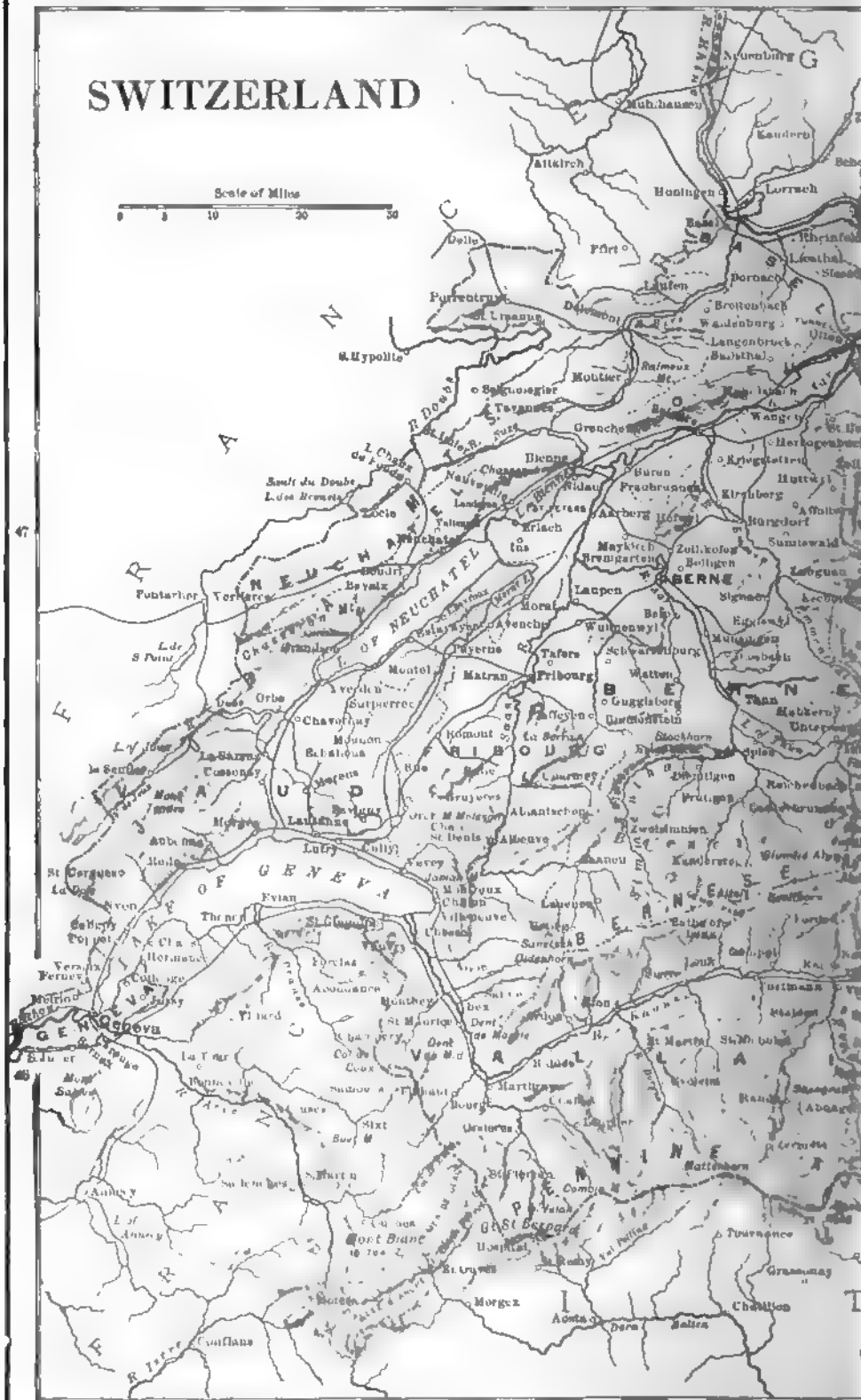
Pope Gregory XVI. was bitterly opposed to all reform, and was the mere instrument of the Jesuits, whose power in the Romish Church was rapidly overshadowing everything else, while he took inspiration in political matters from the Emperor of Austria. The Pope's partisans were called *Gregoriani*.

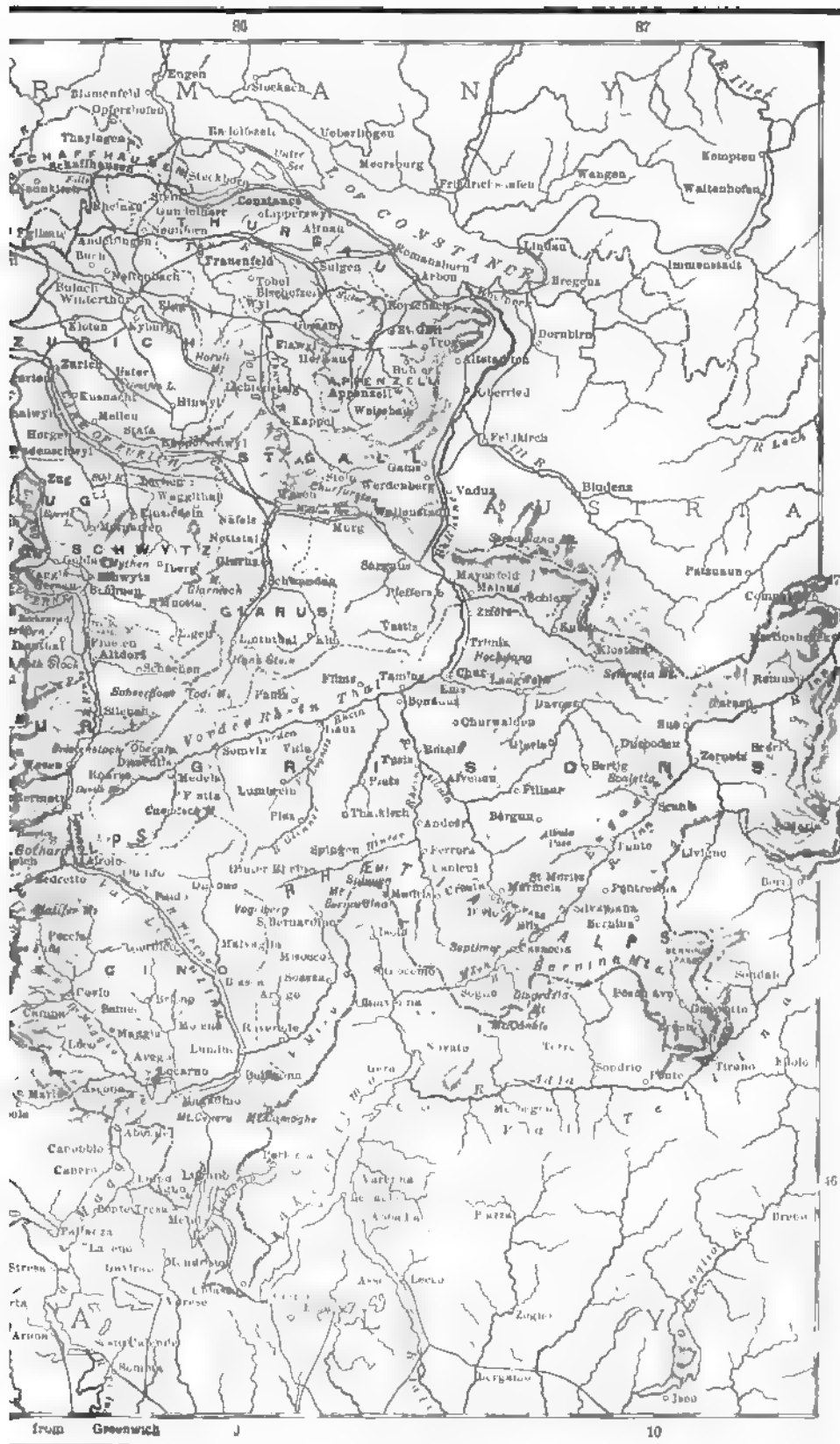
After the death of Pope Gregory XVI., Cardinal Mastai Ferreti was elected Pope with the title of Pius IX., June 18, 1846. To the surprise and delight of all Italy, the

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new Head of the Church took the lead in reform, thus beginning his pontificate by reversing the illiberal policy of his predecessor. He intended to be a constitutional Pope, and his first acts were full of promise. He liberated all political prisoners within his dominions, and extended a general amnesty to all political offenders. He granted his subjects freedom of the press and of speech and the right to petition for a redress of grievances, improved the administration of justice, gave the city of Rome a liberal municipal government, subjected the monasteries and convents to a rigid inspection, and promised other reforms. He also took steps for a confederation of all the Italian states.

Thus Pope Pius IX. was at first a zealous political reformer, and the liberal course pursued by him at once aroused a spirit of republicanism and nationality throughout Italy. The fiery Italians were seized with a mighty enthusiasm, and new hopes sprang up in the bosoms of the Italian patriots. The Gregorians were indignant at the Pope's course, and the ultra republicans were angry because his course made him the most popular man in Italy; but the great mass of the Pope's own subjects were delighted.

In the spring of 1847 there were a number of disturbances in the streets of Rome, and the papal troops and the municipal police were unable to maintain order. The liberal party demanded the formation of a National Guard; and, in spite of the opposition of the Austrian government to this plan, the Pope consented to the formation of a National Guard in Rome and in all the Papal States, July, 1847. To punish Pius IX. for yielding to the popular demand, the Austrian government sent a strong force of Croats into the Pope's dominions; and this force occupied Ferrara, in spite of the protests of the papal legate.

The success of the reform movement in Rome encouraged the other Italian states to wring constitutions from their rulers, who for the moment were obliged to yield to the demands of their subjects, though they re-

lied upon Austria to crush the popular movement throughout Italy. The death of Maria Louisa, Duchess of Parma, the little-loved and little-respected widow of Napoleon I., December 18, 1847, made the ducal throne of Parma vacant.

An insurrection broke out at Palermo in January, 1848; and the Sicilians rose in revolt against their sovereign, King Ferdinand V. of Naples, established a provisional government and asserted their independence. A bloody war ensued between the Sicilians and the Neapolitans, and Ferdinand V. of Naples was forced to grant a liberal constitution. Archduke Leopold of Tuscany and King Charles Albert of Sardinia did the same; and the Duke of Modena, a zealous defender of the doctrine of the "divine right" of princes, saved himself from the vengeance of his subjects by flight.

King Charles Albert of Sardinia placed himself at the head of the Italian movement, and declared his readiness to go to war with Austria if the Austrian troops advanced farther into the papal territory. These events aroused the hopes of the Italians for national unity and civil freedom, and their fiery animosity was directed against the two powers which stood in the way of this object—the Jesuits and the Austrians. With the shouts for Pio Nono were mingled vivas for Gioberti, the enemy of the Jesuits, and cries of "Death to the Germans" against Austria.

FRENCH REVOLUTION OF FEBRUARY, 1848.

During the latter part of 1847, and in the beginning of 1848, numerous reform banquets were held in different parts of France. Arrangements were made for the holding of one in one of the arrondissements of Paris, on the 22d of February, 1848, Washington's birthday; but the Ministry issued a proclamation forbidding it, and made preparations to suppress it by military force if it were attempted. The Chamber of Deputies, then in session, warmly discussed the arbitrary measures of the government; and the opposition members resolved upon the impeachment of the ministers.

The reform banquet arranged for the 22d

of February, 1848, was not held; but, on the morning of that day, large crowds collected in Paris, blocked up the avenues leading to the legislative Chambers, and made offensive demonstrations before the house of M. Guizot. About noon a large crowd assembled in front of the Church of the Madeleine, but were easily dispersed by the troops. In the evening disturbances began in the French capital. Gunsmiths' shops were broken open, lamps were extinguished, barricades were erected, guards were attacked, and the streets were filled with soldiers. In the Chambers, Odillon Barrot moved an impeachment of the Prime Minister.

On the morning of February 23d the streets of Paris were filled with large crowds of people, barricades were erected, and some fighting occurred between the people and the troops, in which several persons were killed. In obedience to the request of the National Guards, who fraternized with the people, the king dismissed the Ministry of M. Guizot, and called on Count Molé to form a new Cabinet. This action of the king produced a lull; but the wanton discharge of musketry upon a large crowd, by the guards assembled before M. Guizot's hotel, by which fifty-two persons were killed and wounded, again excited the fury of the populace, who paraded through the streets with a bier covered with dead bodies, crying: "To arms!" "Down with the assassins!" "Down with Louis Philippe!" "Down with the Bourbons!"

On the morning of February 24th the whole city of Paris was in possession of the people. At the Chateau d'Eau, a large stone building in front of the Palais Royal, a severe fight occurred between the people and the municipal guards; and the chateau was demolished by fire. The mob then marched to the Tuileries and demanded the abdication of the king. Louis Philippe signed an abdication in favor of his grandson, the young Count de Paris; but the Chambers would not accept the young prince, and Louis Philippe and his family fled to Neuilly, from which place they made

their escape to England. The royal furniture was thrown out of the windows of the Tuileries and burned; the wines in the royal cellars were distributed among the multitude; the throne was carried through the streets, and finally burned on the Place de la Bastille; and the royal carriages were burned at the Chateau d'Eau. Overwhelmed by the mob, and amid the greatest confusion and shouts of "Vive la Republique!" the sturdy republican, Dupont de l'Eure, was carried to the chair in the Chamber of Deputies, where a provisional government was proclaimed, consisting of the following persons—M. Lamartine, Emanuel Arago, Ledru Rollin, Garnier Pages, Dupont de l'Eure, Lamoriciere, Cavaignac and Decoutrias. The provisional government was installed at the Hotel de Ville, and proclaimed the *Second French Republic*. The Chamber of Peers was immediately abolished. The poet M. Lamartine was the master-spirit of the new government. Every citizen of France was made an elector, and twenty-five years of age constituted eligibility for office; the penalty of death for political offences was immediately abolished; and all slaves on territory subject to France were declared free.

On the 4th of March, 1848, the victims of the Revolution of February were solemnly interred, in the presence of nearly half a million of people, at the foot of a monument erected to the memory of the victims of the Revolution of July, 1830. France's new rulers directed their first efforts to the re-establishment of order, and many grievances of which the people complained were removed. Fêtes, parades and illuminations were given daily for the public amusement. But the spirit of anarchy and restlessness was now rife for another insurrection. As the Revolution had been the work of the laboring classes, efforts were now taken by the provisional government to better their condition. National workshops were established in Paris, where the idle could find employment.

The moderate and Red Republicans had united to overturn the throne of Louis Phil-

type; but no sooner had the Republic been proclaimed than the animosity between those two parties broke forth anew, and when the Reds perceived that the control of public affairs was in the hands of the moderate party they began to conspire for another revolution. The first open opposition to the provisional government was made on the 16th of April, 1848; the object of the movement being the overthrow of the provisional government, and the establishment of a Committee of Safety for the direction of public affairs. This movement, and a rising of the various clubs of Paris, were easily suppressed. Bloody riots occurred on the 23d and 24th of April, 1848, the days for the election of members for a permanent National Assembly.

The elections throughout France resulted in large majorities for the moderate republicans; and on the 5th of May, 1848, the newly-elected National Assembly met in Paris, and organized with the election of M. Buchez as president. On the following day, May 6, 1848, the members of the provisional government submitted their reports to the National Assembly and resigned their powers. On the 10th the National Assembly appointed M. Emanuel Arago, Garnier Pages, M. Marie, M. Lamartine and Ledru Rollin an executive committee to act in place of the provisional government.

On the 15th of May, 1848, an immense mob assembled in the streets of Paris, proceeded to the hall of the National Assembly, drove out the members, and proclaimed Socialism and Communism, the imposition of taxes upon the rich for the benefit of the poor, and the restoration of the guillotine. The mob also declared that France should send an army to Poland to drive the Russian troops from that country, and a heavy tax was levied on the rich to carry on the war for Poland. The mob also appointed an executive government composed of the Communist leaders, M. Barbes, Blanqui, Flocon, Cabet, Albert, Raspail and Louis Blanc. This movement would doubtless have resulted in the most serious consequences had not the National Guard declared for the

National Assembly, dispersed the mob at the point of the bayonet, and restored order. The Communist leaders, Blanqui, Barbes, Raspail, Sobrier and Albert, were arrested and imprisoned.

The insurrection of May 15th was only a prelude to the great Communist Rebellion of June. Fearing another demonstration on an extensive scale, the government made the necessary preparations to meet it. Finding the burdens imposed upon the national treasury too heavy to be borne, the government, in June, resolved upon the discharge of the immense army of workmen, more than one hundred thousand in number, uselessly employed in Paris at the public expense. This alarmed the workmen, who immediately organized for another desperate struggle, for the purpose of bringing about the realization in practice of the theory of Communism and Socialism—a community of goods and manners. The party of law and order, which controlled the National Assembly, was resolved upon the complete annihilation of the Communist faction in the event of another appeal to arms.

On the 22d of June, 1848, a deputation of five delegates, appointed by the workmen, called on M. Marie, the Prime Minister of the Republic. After a short conference, the deputation returned to the workmen, assuring them that they had nothing to expect from the government. This was the signal for riotous demonstrations. Large crowds collected in the evening at the Hotel de Ville, the Place de la Bastille and other important points, crying for the downfall of the Republic and the elevation of Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte to the head of power. On the following morning, June 23d, it was found that the rioters had made considerable progress and thrown up barricades in various portions of the city. The principal insurgent barricades were in the Rue St. Denis, Rue du Faubourg St. Denis, Rue Villeneuve Bourbon, Rue de Clery, and near the Porte St. Denis and the Porte St. Martin.

The government appointed General Ca-

vagnac, then Minister of War, commander-in-chief of all the troops in Paris. The barricades near the Porte St. Denis were carried at the point of the bayonet. The insurgents there were aided by boys, and even by women, who appeared on the barricades, waving flags and other emblems. On the 24th the National Assembly declared Paris in a state of siege, and appointed General Cavaignac dictator. A heavy musketry and artillery fire continued during the greater part of the day, and before evening the rebellion was suppressed on the left bank of the Seine, but a sanguinary struggle took place at the Clos St. Lazarre, on the right bank. The conflict raged with great fury during the 25th. The government troops numbered three hundred thousand men, and the insurgents one hundred and twenty thousand. A terrible struggle raged at the Pantheon, where the rebel barricades were captured after frightful carnage. In the evening of this day occurred one of the saddest events in this unhappy civil war. Monseigneur Affre, Archbishop of Paris, appeared at the Place de la Bastille for the laudable purpose of bringing about a pacification. On the appearance of the noble prelate both parties for a while ceased firing, but suddenly recommenced; and the venerable Archbishop received a mortal wound, and expired on the morning of the 27th.

On the morning of the 26th the struggle was renewed with terrible fierceness; the principal scenes of action being the Faubourg St. Antoine, the Place Maubert and the vicinity of the Pantheon. At noon the insurgents at the Faubourg St. Antoine surrendered; but the other places were stormed, and the insurgent garrisons of each were killed or captured. The insurgent barricade at the corner of the Rue de la Roquette was attacked by the government troops under General Lamoriciere, after having carried all the rebel barricades in the Faubourg du Temple. From the Place de la Bastille, Lamoriciere's troops bombarded and cannonaded the insurgent works, when the falling of shells on some

of the adjoining houses, several of which were set on fire, so frightened the insurgents that they fled out of the city.

Thus ended the great Rebellion of the Paris Communists in June, 1848. Never before had Paris witnessed such slaughter as during those four sanguinary days. The number of killed and wounded is not definitely known, but twenty-five thousand is not probably a very high estimate. One-fourth of the city was ruined. Several days were occupied in burying the dead, and in repairing the damage inflicted on the city. On the 29th, June, 1848, General Cavaignac resigned his dictatorship into the hands of the National Assembly, and that body then appointed him Chief Executive of France.

On the 4th of November, 1848, the French National Assembly, by a vote of seven hundred and thirty-nine in favor and thirty in opposition, adopted a Constitution, giving France a republican form of government with one Legislative Assembly, and vesting the executive power in a President to be elected by universal suffrage for a term of four years. The candidates for the Presidency were General Cavaignac, General Changarnier, M. Lamartine, Raspail, Ledru Rollin, Louis Blanc and Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte. To the surprise of all, the Presidential election resulted in the choice of Louis Napoleon, by a clear majority of three million five hundred and fifty-six thousand four hundred against all the other candidates combined. The President-elect was sworn into office on December 20, 1848, in the presence of the Assembly by M. Marrast, president of that body.

REVOLUTIONS IN GERMANY AND PRUSSIA.

The Revolution of February, 1848, in Paris, was the signal for general popular risings in Germany, Italy and Hungary, which countries had long been disturbed by political and social agitation; and concessions which had been vainly demanded for thirty years by the liberal party in Germany were now extorted from every German ruler within three weeks.

On the 29th of February, 1848, deputations from every town in the Grand-Duchy of Baden demanded of the Grand-Duke freedom of the press, trial by jury, the right of the people to bear arms and to meet in public, and a popular legislative assembly for all Germany by the side of the Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main. On the 2d of March the Grand-Duke yielded to all these demands, appointed a Ministry from the liberal party, and adopted other conciliatory measures. Popular movements of a similar character took place in other parts of Germany. King Louis of Bavaria, after being forced to grant to his subjects the reforms which they had demanded, abdicated his throne in favor of the Crown-Prince MAXIMILIAN. The Kings of Hanover, Saxony and Würtemberg granted to their subjects the concessions which they had demanded. In Hanover, Hesse-Cassel and other German states the leaders of the popular party were called to the Ministry, and many beneficent reforms were introduced; but the popular movement assumed such formidable proportions that insurrection and revolution were entered upon in many portions of Germany. In many localities the peasants drove away the stewards, and destroyed the land and tithe registers and the seats of the landlord.

On the 17th of March, 1848, the King of Prussia granted freedom of the press; but the people of Berlin also demanded the withdrawal of the soldiers from the capital, and the formation of a National Guard. Crowds assembled in the streets in front of the royal palace, where, on the 18th of March, a terrible conflict commenced, and only terminated on the afternoon of the 19th, after having raged for fourteen hours. The barricades which had been erected by the people were removed by the troops, who were then ordered by the king to withdraw. The Ministry was dismissed, a militia and a guard for the palace were formed, and an unconditional amnesty was granted by the king, Frederick William IV., who now placed himself at the head of the popular movement in Germany. A few weeks later

a constituent National Assembly, elected by universal suffrage, undertook the task of framing a representative constitution for the Prussian kingdom.

When, in consequence of the Paris February Revolution, a powerful movement was communicated to the other European states, the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which were under the government of the King of Denmark, resolved to assert their independence by force of arms. The Duchies established a provisional government, and, on the 26th of March, 1848, declared their independence of the King of Denmark. A bloody war ensued between the King of Denmark and the Duchies. The Schleswig-Holsteiners were aided by Prussian and other German volunteers, and the Danes were driven from Schleswig. The threatening attitude assumed by England and Russia, in consequence of the distressing effect of this war upon the maritime trade of Northern Europe, induced Prussia to conclude the Truce of Malmo with the King of Denmark; and hostilities were for some time suspended.

In the beginning of April, 1848, the German Parliament assembled by its own authority in the Free City of Frankfort-on-the-Main. This Parliament laid down the principle of popular sovereignty, and prepared the way for the convocation of a freely-elected National Assembly, which should be charged with the task of framing a constitution for a free and united Germany.

A party headed by Hecker, Struve and others was striving for a German republic; and a republican insurrection broke out in Baden, but the movement was speedily crushed, and the leaders were obliged to flee.

On the 18th of May, 1848, the German National Assembly, which was chosen to frame a constitution for the German nation, convened in the Church of St. Paul, at Frankfort-on-the-Main. The Assembly immediately set aside the Diet and established a new central power, and resolved upon the choice of an irresponsible regent, who was to surround himself with a responsible Ministry.

On the 29th of June, 1848, the Archduke John of Austria was chosen Regent of Germany by the National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main; and on the 11th of July he received from the hands of the president of the Federal Diet the power exercised by that body.

On the 18th of September, 1848, a revolutionary rising occurred at Frankfort-on-the-Main, the object of which was to disperse the German National Assembly and to bring about the establishment of a German republic. After a bloody street-fight, the insurrection was crushed by the Federal troops; but two members of the National Assembly, Auerswald and Lichnowsky, were murdered by the mob in the Bornheimer wood.

For some time the popular unions ruled in Berlin; and noisy rioters, excited by public orators and by placards on the walls, constantly surrounded the Prussian constituent National Assembly, and exercised an influence upon the deliberations of that body by intimidation. The King of Prussia resolved to put an end to such proceedings, and the new Ministry of Count Brandenburg adjourned the sitting of the Assembly to the town of Brandenburg. Some of the members continued their sittings in Berlin, but were soon driven out by the troops; and when the Assembly declared the levying of taxes illegal it was dissolved. At the same time the Prussian government proclaimed a liberal constitution, which was to be submitted for ratification to a new elective assembly with two Chambers.

In March, 1849, the German constituent National Assembly adopted a constitution which united the German states into a confederacy, with an hereditary Emperor, and a legislative assembly consisting of two branches, one of which should be composed of representatives of the government, and the other of deputies chosen by the German people. The Assembly, by a large vote, offered the dignity of Emperor of Germany to the King of Prussia, upon condition of his accepting the new imperial constitution in all its details; but Frederick

William IV. decisively rejected the new constitution and the imperial dignity. When the Prussian Assembly of Estates recommended the acceptance of the constitution and the imperial dignity by the king, as the desire of the German people, the first Chamber was prorogued and the second dissolved; and the elective law was so changed that the right of universal suffrage was to give place to an election arranged upon the three tax-paying classes.

The consequences of the Prussian king's rejection of the imperial constitution were fresh commotions in various parts of Germany; and formidable insurrections and bloody street-fights occurred in Saxony, Rhenish Bavaria and Rhenish Prussia. The Republican party was gradually gaining power in the German National Assembly, but the revolutionary movement in Germany was speedily suppressed by the Prussian army. Prussian troops crushed the popular risings in Elberfeld, Düsseldorf and other places; and, after a barricade street-fight of six days in Dresden, Prussian troops restored the authority of the King of Saxony.

A mutiny of the garrison in the fortress of Rastadt, and an insurrection at Carlsruhe, compelled the Grand-Duke of Baden to take flight; whereupon the control of public affairs in the Grand-Duchy came into the hands of the democrats and republicans. At the Grand-Duke's call for assistance, Prussian troops marched into Baden; and, after several engagements, in which the insurgent troops under the Polish adventurer Mierolawski were defeated, the insurrection was thoroughly crushed, and the Grand-Duke's authority was fully restored. Some of the revolutionary leaders were shot, but others saved themselves by fleeing into republican countries. In the meantime the German National Assembly, which was now entirely controlled by the republicans—the conservative members having resigned their seats—had removed its sittings to Stuttgart, in Würtemberg; but the Würtemberg government soon forced the members to leave that kingdom.

Hostilities between the King of Denmark and the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein broke out afresh in March, 1849. On the 5th of April, 1849, the Danish ship-of-the-line *Christian VIII.* was sunk by German troops, and the Danish frigate *Gefion* was compelled to surrender. The triumphant Germans soon laid siege to Frederica, but they were afterward driven back by the Danes. An armistice was concluded in July, 1849; and in the following year, 1850, a treaty of peace was signed by which the sovereignty of the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein remained in the hands of the King of Denmark.

A new constitution went into operation in Prussia on the 6th of February, 1850, since which time Prussia has been a constitutional monarchy. The question of the German constitution still remained unsettled. While Austria was engaged in her struggle with Hungary, Prussia sought to unite all Germany except Austria in a new confederation under Prussian leadership. For this purpose Prussia concluded an alliance with Hanover and Saxony, May 26, 1849; and this league was afterward joined by some of the smaller German states, and was called the *German Union*. A Parliament of this Union was convened at Erfurt, March 20, 1850; but neither Hanover nor Saxony sent any deputies to it, and after a few sittings it adjourned indefinitely, while Hanover retired from the new German Union.

Frederick William IV. of Prussia made another effort to form a German league under Prussia's leadership by convening a Congress of the German princes at Berlin, May 10, 1850. Austria, alarmed for her own supremacy in Germany, assembled the Diet of the old German Confederation at Frankfort-on-the-Main, May 10, 1850, the very day when the Congress under Prussia's leadership convened at Berlin. All the German states except Prussia and Oldenburg were represented in this meeting of the old German Federal Diet.

Thus two rival German assemblies were in session at the same time—one at Berlin

to form a new German confederation under Prussian leadership, and another at Frankfort-on-the-Main to maintain the old one under Austrian supremacy. Thus Germany was divided into two hostile parties; and a civil war was almost caused by the action of the Elector of Hesse-Cassel in outraging the constitution which he had granted by proceeding to levy taxes without the consent of the Chambers of his state, thus causing a revolt of his subjects, who drove him from his dominions. The Elector appealed to the German Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main, and that body resolved to support him. Accordingly an Austrian and Bavarian force marched into Hesse-Cassel to restore the Elector's authority; but Prussia supported the Elector's revolted subjects, and occupied Cassel and Fulda with her own troops. Austria demanded the withdrawal of the Prussian troops from Hesse-Cassel, but Prussia refused compliance with Austria's demand, and both parties prepared for war.

Thus a collision between the two great German powers seemed inevitable, and it appeared that the question whether Austria or Prussia should hold the ascendancy in Germany would then be decided by an appeal to arms; but Russian mediation and a change of Ministry at Berlin averted hostilities. Austria and Prussia were induced to consent to a free conference of all the German princes to arrange the constitution of Germany, while Austria and Prussia were to settle the affairs of Hesse-Cassel and of Schleswig-Holstein between them. The "free conference" of the German princes at Dresden, in December, 1850, accomplished nothing; but Prussia was induced to acknowledge the German Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main, as a measure of peace; and by the settlement of June 12, 1851, the old Germanic Confederation was restored as it had existed from 1815 to 1848, thus ending three years of revolution and disturbance in Germany.

A Congress of plenipotentiaries of the Great European Powers at London, in 1852, settled the whole of the Danish inheritance,

including the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, upon Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, who had married a princess of Hesse; but neither Germany nor the Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein accepted this arrangement, and the question was left unsettled—the germ of future wars.

REVOLUTIONS IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

The Paris Revolution of February, 1848, aroused the various races in the ill-compacted Austrian Empire—Germans, Italians, Slavonians and Hungarians. When the Diet of Lower Austria was opened at Vienna, on the 13th of March, 1848, a large concourse of people, headed by the students of the University, proceeded to the hall in which the Diet assembled, and demanded a constitution, liberty of the press, a National Guard, trial by jury and religious liberty. The order for the people to disperse not being obeyed, the Archduke Albert ordered the troops to fire into the crowd. A great number were killed and wounded, and the exasperation of the excited populace obliged the Austrian Emperor to order the soldiers to withdraw. The arsenal was opened to the people by the city guards, who declared for the popular cause. The Ministry of Prince Metternich was overthrown, and in a few days the Emperor Ferdinand yielded to all the demands of the people. Lawlessness soon prevailed in the Austrian capital, and the result of the liberty of the press was a disgraceful daily literature. Riots and insurrections were of frequent occurrence. On the 18th of May, 1848, the Emperor and his court retired to Innsbruck, in the Tyrol; but, at the request of the people, he returned to the capital in August, when the students and the democratic clubs ruled Vienna in the most arbitrary and despotic manner.

Just after the Vienna Revolution of March, 1848, a deputation from Hungary, headed by Louis Kossuth, appeared in Vienna and asked for the Hungarian kingdom the royal assent to a series of acts passed by the Hungarian Diet, providing for the annual meet-

ing of that body, the union of Transylvania with Hungary, the organization of a Hungarian National Guard, equality of taxation for all classes, religious toleration, liberty of the press, and a separate Ministry for Hungary. These acts were approved by the Emperor-king, who, on the 11th of April, 1848, personally confirmed them in the Hungarian Diet, convened at Pesth, the capital of Hungary. These concessions were hailed with joy by the Hungarians.

The Croats and the other Slavic races under the Hungarian government, jealous of the ascendancy of the Magyars, and demanding their independence of Hungarian rule, took up arms against the Magyars. The Croats were encouraged in their rebellion by the Austrian government, and Austrian armies were sent to their assistance. The Servians, a Slavonic race, who had also revolted against the Hungarian government, laid waste the Magyar villages, and committed the greatest atrocities on the defenseless population. The Hungarian war actually opened on the 12th of June, 1848, when the Magyars bombarded Carlowitz, the Servian metropolis. The Servians in the Ottoman territories hastened to the aid of their brethren in the Austrian dominions, and the Magyars were obliged to take refuge in the fortress of Peterwardein. The whole Servian population in the Banat then rose against the Magyars, and hostilities between the contending races raged with great fury.

The Bohemians, a Slavic race, had applied to the Emperor of Austria for a constitution which would render their relations with the Austrian Empire the same as those of the Hungarians. Representatives from all the Slavic nations of the Empire assembled in a Congress at Prague, in June, 1848. During the session of that Congress, the people of Prague demanded of Prince Windischgrätz the removal of the troops from the city, and the furnishing of arms to the people; and when this demand was not complied with, the people rose in insurrection. After dreadful fighting in the streets of Prague for a whole week, during which the city was also bombarded from the neighbor-

ing heights, the city surrendered to Prince Windischgrätz on the 17th of June. The Slavic Congress was broken up, and the insurrection was quelled.

On the 29th of June, 1848, the Imperial Government at Vienna announced Austria's intention to openly support the Slavic races in their revolt against Magyar rule; and it soon appeared that Emperor Ferdinand, after the suppression of the rebellion against Austrian authority in Northern Italy, was resolved to deprive the Magyars of the privileges which he had recently granted to them. Convinced that the rights of Hungary must be defended by force of arms, the Hungarian Diet resolved to raise an army of two hundred thousand men.

In the meantime a united Austrian and Croatian force, under the command of Jellachich, the Ban or governor of Croatia, had invaded Hungary and advanced toward Pesth; but the Magyars, aroused by the eloquent and patriotic appeals of Louis Kossuth, one of the ablest of their leaders, soon repulsed the invaders, compelled Jellachich to flee, and, on the 5th of October, 1848, captured the Croatian rear-guard, consisting of ten thousand men.

The Magyars were highly incensed at the course of the Imperial Government; and on the 3d of October, 1848, the imperial commissioner, Lamberg, was murdered by an enraged mob on the bridge of Buda-Pesth. The Austrian troops were immediately ordered to march into Hungary; but the democrats of Vienna, who were in sympathy with the Magyars, excited another revolution in the Austrian capital. Count Latour, Minister of War, was murdered by the excited mob; and the Ministry was overthrown, October 6, 1848. The Emperor of Austria fled to Olmütz, in Moravia; and at his command Prince Windischgrätz marched against the rebellious capital. After besieging Vienna for three weeks, the imperial army under Windischgrätz opened a furious assault on the city on the 29th of October; and, after a heroic defence, the city surrendered on the 31st. The conquered capital was placed under martial

law; and several of the revolutionary leaders, among whom was Robert Blum, a member of the German National Assembly, were punished with death. The Imperial Government then adopted a conciliatory course.

Wearied of the contentions in the various parts of his dominions, the Austrian Emperor Ferdinand abdicated his throne, on the 2d of December, 1848, and was succeeded by his nephew, FRANCIS JOSEPH. As the new Emperor did not take the requisite oath to support the constitution, laws and liberties of Hungary, the Magyars refused to acknowledge him as their sovereign.

All the efforts of the Magyars for a peaceful settlement of difficulties were unsuccessful, as the Austrian government was resolved upon depriving Hungary of her rights. The Magyars therefore made the most vigorous exertions for defense; manufactories of arms and ammunition were established; the peasants of Hungary flew to arms; and the most intense enthusiasm was manifested.

In December, 1848, the Austrian army under Windischgrätz entered Hungary from the west; and on the 5th of January, 1849, Pesth fell into the hands of the Austrian and Croatian forces under Windischgrätz and Jellachich. Kossuth and the Hungarian Ministry and Diet retired to Debreczin, in the south-eastern part of Hungary.

On the 30th of January, 1849, the Magyars lost the strong fortress of Essek, in Slavonia, which was surrendered to the imperialists with its garrison of five thousand men. About the same time General Bem, a Pole, who was at the head of an army of ten thousand Magyars, was driven from Transylvania; the Saxons and Wallachs, who inhabit that province, having joined the Austrians; but, the warlike Szecklers of Southern Hungary having risen in favor of the Magyars, Bem returned to Transylvania, defeated the Austrians and Russians who opposed him, took Kronstadt and Hermannstadt, and then passed into the Banat, and captured Temesvar, its capital.

At the beginning of February, 1849, Kossuth appointed General Dembinski, also a

Pole, to the chief command of the Magyar forces. Dembinski concentrated the Hungarian armies in the upper part of the valley of the Theiss to meet the advancing Austrians under Windischgrätz. On the 26th and 27th of February, 1849, a bloody battle was fought between forty thousand Magyars and sixty thousand Austrians at Kapolna, where, in consequence of the inactivity of the Hungarian General Görgey, the imperialists were victorious.

The new Emperor, Francis Joseph, dissolved the Austrian constituent Diet at Kremsier; and on the 4th of March, 1849, he proclaimed a constitution for the Austrian Empire, by which Hungary was to be incorporated with Austria. The Austrian government also solicited the aid of Russia to crush the Hungarian rebellion. The Hungarian Diet at Debreczin, convinced of the impossibility of a reconciliation with Austria, took a decisive step, on the 14th of April, 1849, by declaring the independence of Hungary; and Louis Kossuth was appointed Governor of Hungary with almost absolute powers. On the 12th of May, 1849, the Emperor of Austria issued a proclamation to the Magyars, announcing the intervention of Russia, and ordering them to lay down their arms.

At length Görgey was entrusted with the chief command of the Hungarian armies, Dembinski having resigned that post a few days after the battle of Kapolna. After fourteen days of terrific hand-to-hand fighting, commencing with the battle of Szolnok on the 27th of March, and ending with the capture of Waitzen by Görgey on the 9th of April, the Magyars recovered Pesth, relieved Komorn and utterly routed the imperialists. On the 17th of April the chief command of the Austrian armies was assigned to Baron Welden. On the 18th, April, 1849, Welden was defeated at Szoncz; and on the 19th the Austrian reserve under Wohlgemuth was annihilated at Nagy Sarlo. The Austrians were severely repulsed in several attempts to carry by storm the strong fortress of Komorn, and Welden was compelled to retreat toward Vienna. Instead of

following up his successes by threatening the Austrian capital, as urged by Kossuth, Görgey laid siege to the strong fortress of Buda, opposite Pesth. Görgey carried Buda by storm on the 21st of May; but the siege involved a delay fatal to the cause of Hungary, and saved Vienna and probably the Austrian Empire. The imperial forces were now completely driven out of Hungary, and the first campaign ended in the triumph of the Magyars.

In response to Austria's application for Russian assistance in subduing the Magyar insurgents, the Czar Nicholas set an army of one hundred and sixty thousand men, under the command of Prince Paskiewitsch, to invade Hungary on the north-east. At the same time the Austrians were preparing to reënter Hungary on the west; and by the 1st of June, 1849, four hundred thousand hostile troops were on the Hungarian frontiers. On the 30th of May the brutal Baron Haynau was invested with the chief command of the Austrian armies. At about the same time, early in June, Haynau with fifty thousand Austrians entered Hungary at Presburg; Paskiewitsch with ninety thousand Russians crossed the Galician frontiers and invaded Hungary on the north-east; an Austro-Russian army of fifty-five thousand men entered Transylvania; and Jellachich with his Croats advanced into the Magyar territory from the south.

Now opened the second campaign in the Hungarian war—the campaign which resulted in the subjugation of the Hungarian insurgents. After a gallant resistance, Bem was driven from Transylvania by the overwhelming forces of the Russians. Paskiewitsch, with the main Russian army, entered Debreczin on the 7th of July and Pesth on the 11th, and compelled Dembinski to retreat southward into the Banat. Jellachich, after suffering a severe defeat near Hegyes, marched up the Theiss with his Croats to form a junction with the Austrians under Haynau.

Haynau, who had in the meantime advanced from Presburg with the main Austrian army, was defeated by Görgey near Komorn,

on the 11th of July, 1849. From Komorn Görgey retreated eastward to Tokay, and thence southward to Arad, which place he reached on the 8th of August. On the 19th of July, 1849, Haynau entered Pesth, and then went in pursuit of Görgey. The cruelties of Haynau during his whole career in Hungary reflected disgrace upon his memory, and acquired for him the well-merited title of "Hungary's Hangman."

While Haynau was marching southward in pursuit of the retreating Görgey, an event occurred far in his rear which created serious alarm among the Austrians. On the 3d of August, 1849, the garrison of Komorn, under General Klapka, made a grand sortie from the fortress, utterly routed the Austrians in that vicinity, and opened the road to Vienna. On the 8th, August, 1849, after four days' fighting with the Austrians, Dembinski was severely wounded; whereupon the command of his army devolved on Bem, who, on the following day, August 9, 1849, engaged the Austrian and Croatian forces under Haynau and Jellachich at Temesvar, where, after a sanguinary conflict, in which Bem was covered with wounds, the army which he commanded was thoroughly annihilated; Görgey, although within a short distance of the place where he was fighting, having neglected to come to his assistance.

The disasters to the Hungarian arms were in a great measure owing to the dissensions and want of concert among the Polish and Magyar generals; and Görgey, with whom the gratification of personal ambition was a primary consideration, was striving for absolute power. At the request of Görgey and at the solicitation of his friends, Kossuth, on the 10th of August, 1849, dissolved the provisional government and appointed the ambitious general dictator. Görgey had long been suspected of treachery to the cause of Hungary, and he had repeatedly disobeyed the orders of the provisional government. It now appeared that he had for some time been engaged in a treasonable correspondence with the enemies of his country, and he immediately made use of his absolute power

to ruin the cause of Hungarian independence. On the 13th of August, 1849, Görgey surrendered, without any conditions, his entire army of thirty-five thousand men to the Russian General Rudiger, at Villagos.

The treacherous surrender of Görgey paralyzied all the efforts of the Magyars; the various Hungarian detachments laid down their arms; and Hungary lay powerless before the despotic power of Austria. Kossuth, Bem, Dembinski and many others of the patriot leaders fled into the Ottoman dominions; and the Sultan of Turkey nobly refused to deliver them up at the demands of the Austrian government. Bem received a command in the Turkish army. In 1850 Kossuth left Turkey, and visited England and the United States, in which countries his noble efforts in the cause of Hungarian freedom excited universal sympathy.

On the 29th of September, 1849, Komorn surrendered to the Austrians on favorable conditions; and, with the fall of that important fortress, all military opposition to Austrian power in Hungary ceased. To the everlasting infamy of the Austrian government, thirteen Hungarian generals and staff-officers were executed at Arad, on the 6th of October, 1849. Many of the Hungarian civil leaders met the same fate. A large number of the inferior officers were imprisoned in fortresses, some for a term of years, and others for life; and no less than seventy thousand Hungarians who had engaged in the rebellion were compelled to serve in the Austrian army.

REVOLUTIONS IN ITALY, 1848, 1849.

For several years there had been much political agitation in those portions of Italy subject to Austria—namely, Lombardy and Venetia. The Paris Revolution of February aroused the Italians, and finally the Vienna Revolution of March precipitated the climax in Austrian Italy. On the 18th of March, 1848, the people of Milan, on receiving intelligence of the March Revolution of Vienna, flocked to the government-house, and demanded the release of all political prisoners and the formation of a Na-

tional Guard. The Austrian troops fired; whereupon the mob raised the cry of "Ev-viva Italia!" and, rushing forward, overpowered the guard. A discharge of musketry on the people by the military occasioned a general rising; and, after a barricade street-fight of five days, the Austrian troops were driven from the city. At the same time popular risings occurred at Parma and Pavia, and resulted in the expulsion of the Austrian garrisons from those places; and all Lombardy and Venetia was in open rebellion against the Austrian power.

On the 23d of March, 1848, Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, issued a proclamation in favor of Italian nationality, and marched with an army into Lombardy to assist the insurgents there to drive out the Austrians. The delays of Charles Albert gave the Austrian Field-Marshal Radetzky time to concentrate his forces and to receive reinforcements. The Sardinian king gained victories over the Austrians at Peschiera and Goito, and captured Rivoli; but, while he was employed in the siege of Mantua, the Austrians under Radetzky defeated the Sardinians at La Corona, after a desperate conflict. After defeating the King of Sardinia in a bloody battle at Custozza on the 25th of July, and in another at Bussolongo on the 26th, Field-Marshal Radetzky soon reconquered Milan and reduced the whole of Lombardy to submission. King Charles Albert concluded an armistice with the Austrians, and then retired into his own dominions.

The Sicilians were still engaged in their bloody struggle for independence against the King of Naples, begun in January, 1848; and, as we have seen, Ferdinand V. had granted a liberal constitution to the people of Naples. In consequence of Ferdinand's violation of his liberal promises, an insurrection broke out in the city of Naples, in May, 1848; and the king gave up his capital to be plundered and sacked by the lazzaroni, who brutally massacred many of the inhabitants. Ferdinand vigorously prosecuted the war against the revolted Sicilians. Messina surrendered to

the Neapolitans after a fierce bombardment of two days; the Sicilians were defeated in a furious battle at Catania; and Palermo yielded to the arms of the Neapolitans after a short resistance. With the fall of Palermo King Ferdinand V. of Naples recovered his authority throughout Sicily; after which he overthrew by violence the constitution in Naples, which he had granted in a moment of necessity.

The liberal movement soon became too powerful in Rome for the weak Pontiff to control. The Roman people at length outstripped Pius IX. in the matter of reform, and the promise of the Pope to grant a constitutional government to the Pontifical States did not satisfy his subjects. The appointment of Count Rossi, an avowed antagonist of the liberal movement, to the head of the Ministry excited the indignation of the Roman people, who thus became convinced that a reaction had taken place in the mind of the Pope. On the 15th of November, 1848, Rossi was assassinated on the steps of the Assembly House. A popular rising ensued. A mob proceeded to the Pope's palace, and, after a short conflict with the Papal-guards, forced the Pope to appoint a popular Ministry. On the 23d of November, 1848, the Pope fled from Rome, and retired to Gaëta, in the Kingdom of Naples. On the 9th of February, 1849, a popularly chosen National Assembly declared the Pope's temporal power at an end, and that the form of government for the Roman States should be a pure democracy with the title of the *Roman Republic*. A Triumvirate was chosen to exercise executive duties; and at the head of the new government was the able, energetic and eloquent Joseph Mazzini. The commander of the volunteers was the ardent republican, Joseph Garibaldi.

Urged by the Italian republicans, King Charles Albert of Sardinia declared his armistice with Austria at an end on the 20th of March, 1849; and on the same day his kingdom was invaded by the Austrian army under Field-Marshal Radetzky. After a spirited campaign of four days on the Ticino

and near Novara, Sardina, lay prostrate before the power of Austria; and on the evening of the 23d, March, 1849, Charles Albert abdicated the throne of Sardinia in favor of his son, VICTOR EMMANUEL II., and immediately retired to Portugal, where he shortly afterward died of a broken heart. On the 25th of March, 1849, Victor Emmanuel II. concluded a treaty of peace with Austria, by which Sardinia was required to pay fifteen millions of dollars as indemnity for the expenses of Austria in the war.

After waiting anxiously several months for the Roman people to recall him, Pope Pius IX. appealed to the Roman Catholic powers for assistance to restore his temporal power. In response to this appeal, Republican France sent an army of four thousand men under General Oudinot against Rome. The Roman republicans made earnest preparations for defense. The Roman National Assembly declared itself permanent, and Mazzini made fiery addresses to the people. When the French troops arrived before Rome, on the 30th of April, 1849, they found the Roman volunteers under General Garibaldi ready to make a determined resistance. The first attack of the French

was repulsed, and the Eternal City held out heroically until its resources were exhausted; and, after withstanding many furious assaults and a regular bombardment, Rome surrendered to the besieging French on the 3d of July, 1849. General Garibaldi and the popular leaders escaped to England and the United States, and the Pope was restored to his former power under the protection of foreign bayonets. Thenceforth Pope Pius IX. was a most zealous friend of absolutism, and a bitter antagonist to all liberal movements.

While victory shone upon the Austrian arms in Lombardy and Piedmont, an Austrian army was engaged in the siege of Venice, which, in March, 1848, had revolted against Austrian rule and proclaimed the *Republic of St. Mark*. Under the able republican leader, Manini, Venice maintained its independence for nearly a year and a half. After a siege of many months, during which much property had been destroyed and all her provisions had been exhausted, Venice surrendered to Field-Marshal Radetzky, on the 25th of August, 1849; and, with the fall of that gallant city, the authority of Austria was re-established throughout Lombardy and Venetia.

SECTION IV.—RECENT HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.



AS the 4th of March, 1849, fell on the Sabbath, the inauguration of President Taylor did not take place until the 5th. He came into office at a critical time, when the Union was menaced with dismemberment on account of the agitation of the slavery question, which practically divided the Nation into two hostile sections. The bone of contention now was the territory acquired from Mexico by the recent war with that republic. The Whig party and the people of the Northern or Free States opposed the annexation of Texas and the war with Mexico because the territorial extent of slavery would be increased thereby, while the Democratic

party and the people of the Southern or Slave States favored the annexation and the war which followed for that very reason. Said a certain South Carolinian concerning the war with Mexico: "This is a Southern war." Thomas Corwin, of Ohio, sympathized with Mexico, and made a speech on the floor of Congress bitterly denouncing the annexation of Texas and the war with Mexico as outrages equal to the partitions of Poland by Austria, Prussia and Russia, and expressed the hope that the Mexicans would "welcome our soldiers to bloody graves."

As early as August, 1846, when it became evident that the war with Mexico would re-

sult in the acquisition of territory by the United States, David Wilmot, a Democratic Representative in Congress from Pennsylvania, introduced a proposition, known as the *Wilmot Proviso*, by which slavery was to be excluded from all territory acquired from Mexico. The proviso was rejected by Congress, but it brought the slavery question before Congress and the people for violent debate and strengthened the anti-slavery

stitution by which slavery should be excluded from California forever after its admission into the Union as a State.

When in February, 1850, the representatives of California petitioned Congress to admit their Territory into the Union as a State, the friends of slavery in Congress violently opposed her admission as a Free State, and boldly declared that such a proceeding would be a valid reason for the

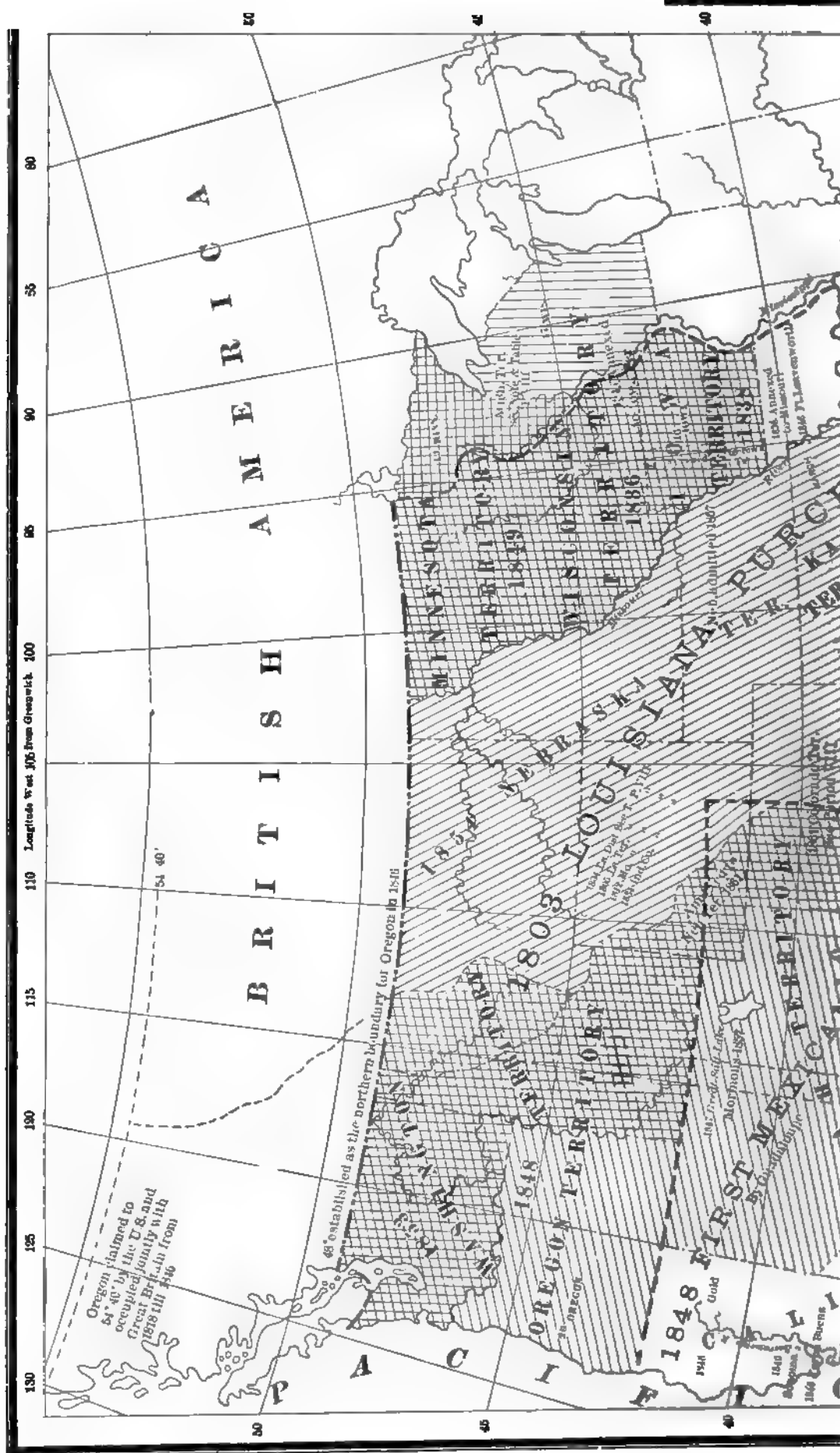


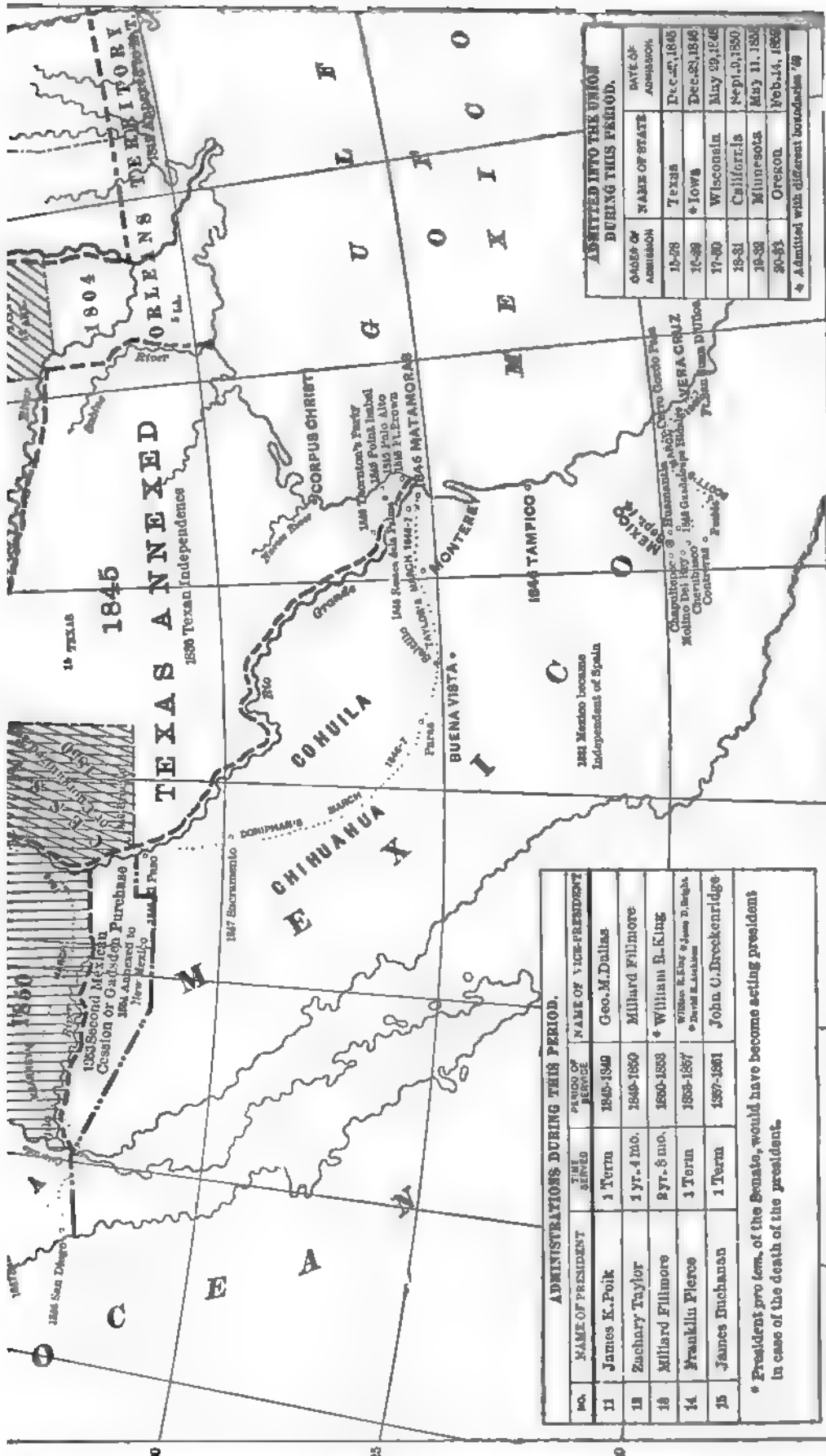
Zachary Taylor

sentiment in the North. A new party was formed, opposed to the extension of slavery and called the *Free Soil Party*.

The discovery of gold in California, early in 1848, caused streams of immigrants to flock into the new Territory from every part of the Union and from all over the civilized world; and the agitation of the slavery question was revived during the first year of Taylor's Administration by the action of the people of California, who, in a convention held at San Francisco, framed a State con-

stitution by which slavery should be excluded from California forever after its admission into the Union as a State. The bold threats of the members of Congress from the Slave States alarmed the friends of the Union so much that they became ready to acquiesce in any measure, and Henry Clay brought forward a plan of compromise in the United States Senate. A committee of thirteen, composed of six Senators from the Free States and six from the Slave States, with Mr. Clay as chairman, was appointed to consider the plan of compromise; and on May 8, 1850, Mr. Clay reported a





ADMITTED INTO THE UNION DURING THIS PERIOD.			
DATE OF ADMISSION	NAME OF STATE	DATE OF ADMISSION	DATE OF ADMISSION
12-28	Texas	12-28	1845
10-30	Iowa	10-30	1846
17-30	Wisconsin	17-30	1848
18-31	California	18-31	1850
19-30	Minnesota	19-30	1858
20-31	Oregon	20-31	1859
* Admitted with different boundaries '49			

ADMINISTRATIONS DURING THIS PERIOD.			
No.	NAME OF PRESIDENT	TIME SERVED	NAME OF VICE-PRESIDENT
11	James K. Polk	1 Term	Geo. M. Dallas
12	Zachary Taylor	1 yr. 4 mo.	Millard Fillmore
13	Millard Fillmore	2 yr. 5 mo.	* William B. King
14	Franklin Pierce	1 Term	William B. King & James D. Seale * David R. Jackson
15	James Buchanan	1 Term	John C. Breckenridge
* President pro tem. of the Senate, would have become acting president in case of the death of the president.			

From Washington

compromise bill. During the fierce debates on the slavery question at this session of Congress, Daniel Webster made his famous 7th of March speech, for which he was violently assailed by the anti-slavery people as having gone over to the pro-slavery party.

While the slavery question was absorbing the attention of Congress and the Nation, President Taylor was attacked by a sudden illness, of which he died on July 9, 1850. In

Bill, as it was called, provided: 1. For the admission of California as a Free State. 2. For the erection of the Mormon settlements into a Territory called Utah, without mention of slavery. 3. For the erection of New Mexico into a Territory, without mention of slavery, and the payment of ten million dollars to Texas in purchase of her claims to a large portion of New Mexico. 4. For the abolition of the slave-trade in the District of



MILLARD FILLMORE.

accordance with the provisions of the National Constitution, the Vice-President, Millard Fillmore, took the oath of office on the following day, and immediately assumed the duties of President of the United States.

After four months' discussion, Mr. Clay's compromise measures were passed by both Houses of Congress, and, after receiving the signature of President Fillmore, on September 9, 1850, became a law of the Republic; and California entered the Union as a Free State. The *Compromise Act*, or *Omnibus*

Columbia. 5. For the arrest and return to their masters of all fugitive slaves who should escape into the Free States.

The last measure of the Compromise Act—the *Fugitive Slave Law*—met with much opposition in the Free States, and the execution and violation of the law in several instances led to serious results and much bitter sectional feeling. Among these may be mentioned the riot at Christiana, Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, in 1851, a serious affray which resulted in the killing of the

Maryland slaveholder whose attempt to recover his fugitive slaves had caused the riot, and which ended in a mistrial in the United States Court in Philadelphia. Another instance was a riot in Boston, caused by an attempt to arrest a fugitive slave, and the killing of the United States marshal who attempted the arrest. Fugitive slaves were assisted in escaping to Canada by a sort of secret concert of action among their sympathizers in the Free States, known as the "underground railroad."

A large portion of the people of the Free States considered slavery morally wrong and a violation of the rights of man and therefore inconsistent with the principles and practices of the Christian religion and incompatible with a republican form of government. A small portion of the Northern people, called *Abolitionists*, demanded the abolition of slavery in every part of the Union. The Abolitionists were very generally Quakers, a sect whose principles forbid the holding of slaves. Among these were Mrs. Lucretia Mott, of Philadelphia, and the Quaker poet, John G. Whittier, of Massachusetts. But the great Abolitionist leaders were William Lloyd Garrison and Wendell Phillips, of Massachusetts; Gerrit Smith and Samuel J. May, of New York, and Owen Lovejoy, of Illinois. Abolition societies had existed for some years. The Abolitionists were even hated and despised in the North as disturbers of the public peace and were persecuted and mobbed. Thus Garrison, who had established an Abolition paper called the *Liberator*, in Boston, in the early thirties, was mobbed and his office wrecked. Owen Lovejoy's brother, the Rev. Elijah P. Lovejoy, also an Abolitionist, was killed in a riot. In the early fifties a sensation was produced by the publication of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, the celebrated work of Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, which did much to strengthen the anti-slavery sentiment in the North. Even the Methodist and Presbyterian Churches of the United States were divided on the slavery question, into the Methodist Church North and the Methodist Church South, and the

Presbyterian Church North and the Presbyterian Church South.

The new Territory of Utah was settled by a new religious sect which had grown up in the United States—namely, the *Mormons*, or *Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints*; the circumstances of whose growth are among the most remarkable of modern times. This strange sect was founded in 1827 by a young man named Joseph Smith, of Central New York, a native of Vermont, who claimed to have found a Bible whose leaves were of gold, near the village of Palmyra, where it was pretended to have lain hidden in the earth for centuries, and whither its finder had been directed by a vision. This Bible—named the *Book of Mormon*—was said to contain an account of the ancient inhabitants of America, with a new gospel for mankind. Smith claimed to have received repeated divine revelations, and readily found followers. The *Mormons* emigrated from New York, and after forming a settlement at Kirtland, Ohio, in 1830, removed to Jackson county, Missouri, in 1831, where they remained eight years, suffering the most violent persecutions from the inhabitants, and being frequently mobbed and finally driven away in 1839. They then settled in Illinois and founded the town of Nauvoo, on the Mississippi river, where, to the number of fifteen thousand, they remained eight years, suffering the same persecution and mob violence which they had endured in Missouri; and in 1844 Joseph Smith was assassinated in jail at Carthage, Illinois, by a mob. Brigham Young became his successor as head of the *Mormon Church* and ruler of his people.

In 1847 the *Mormons* emigrated to what was then a part of the Territory of California, which had just been conquered from Mexico, and which was in 1850 erected into a new Territory of the United States and named *Utah*. They settled on the shores of Great Salt Lake, in 1848, and founded Salt Lake City. They named their new country *Deseret*, or *Land of the Honey-Bee*. They called themselves *Latter-Day Saints*, and all the rest of mankind they designated as *Gentiles*. They

have had missionaries in other parts of the world and have been constantly making new proselytes, and the Mormon community now numbers several hundred thousand. Their practice of polygamy for more than thirty years prevented the admission of Utah as a State, and Congress passed repeated enactments to suppress a practice so abhorrent to Christian civilization. The Mormon Church is a powerful hierarchy, and the head of the Church is an absolute despot as spiritual and temporal ruler. In 1857 the Mormons rebelled against the United States government, but submitted on the approach of United States troops sent by President Buchanan. Brigham Young, who had seventeen wives, died in 1877, and was succeeded by John Taylor. Only after the Mormons had finally abandoned polygamy, in a State Constitution which they had framed, did Congress finally consent to the admission of Utah into the Union as the forty-fifth State (1894), after the Mormons had been settled in the Territory forty-six years.

Both the Whig and Democratic parties accepted the Compromise Act of 1850 as a final settlement of the slavery question, and both sections of the Union in the main considered the question at rest forever; but this delusion lasted only a few years, as we shall presently see.

That great trio of statesmen and orators who for more than a quarter of a century had adorned the United States Senate with their eloquence and greatness—Calhoun, Clay and Webster—ended their earthly career during Taylor's and Fillmore's Administrations. Calhoun, the great Southern champion of "State Rights," slavery, nullification, secession, etc., died at Washington, March 3, 1850, at the age of sixty-eight. Clay died at Washington, June 29, 1852, at the age of seventy-five; and Webster died at his home at Marshfield, Massachusetts, October 24, 1852, at the age of seventy.

In 1851 General Lopez, a native Cuban, and Colonel William L. Crittenden, of Kentucky, led filibustering expeditions from the United States against Cuba to free that island from the Spanish yoke; but they were

captured and put to death. These filibustering expeditions led to a diplomatic correspondence between the United States and several European powers; and England and France proposed that the United States should enter into a treaty with them to discountenance all attempts to wrest Cuba from Spain by force or violence; but in December, 1852, Edward Everett, Daniel Webster's successor as Secretary of State in President Fillmore's Cabinet, plainly informed England and France that the question was an American one and not a European one, and that the United States, while disclaiming any intentions of aggression, could not with indifference see Cuba fall into the possession of any other power than Spain.

In 1852 there was a dispute between the United States and Great Britain concerning the Newfoundland fisheries, and both nations sent armed vessels there; but the trouble was soon settled, and American fishermen were allowed the right to catch fish in the waters of the British possessions at a distance of three miles from the shore, in accordance with the Treaty of 1818.

In 1852 Louis Kossuth, the Hungarian patriot leader, visited the United States to plead the cause of his oppressed country, and was everywhere welcomed by the American people. The Chevalier Hulseman, the Austrian minister at Washington, protested against Kossuth's reception by Congress.

The attention of the American people was directed to Arctic exploration. In 1845 Sir John Franklin, a brave English seaman and explorer, sailed on a voyage of discovery in the North Polar seas. After he had been gone five years without any tidings being received from him, and the various expeditions sent in search of him having failed to find him or his crew, Moses H. Grinnell, of New York, sent an expedition under Lieutenant De Haven in 1850; but this expedition also failed to find the missing navigator. In 1853 another expedition was sent by Grinnell and the United States government, under the command of Dr. Elisha Kent Kane. Sir John Franklin was not found; but a circumpolar sea was discovered, but useless for

navigation; and Captain McClure, of the British navy, discovered a Northwest passage from Baffin's Bay to Behring's Strait in 1852.

In 1852 a United States naval expedition under Commodore Matthew C. Perry, a brother of Commodore Oliver H. Perry, the hero of Lake Erie, was sent to Japan to open commercial intercourse between that eastern empire and the United States.

the Presidential candidate of the Free Soil party, which was opposed to the extension of slavery into the Territories of the United States, whose comparatively small vote was only one-half of what it had been four years previously. This was the last campaign of the Whig party, which was unable to rally from General Scott's overwhelming defeat, and whose great leaders, Henry Clay, Daniel Webster, and John

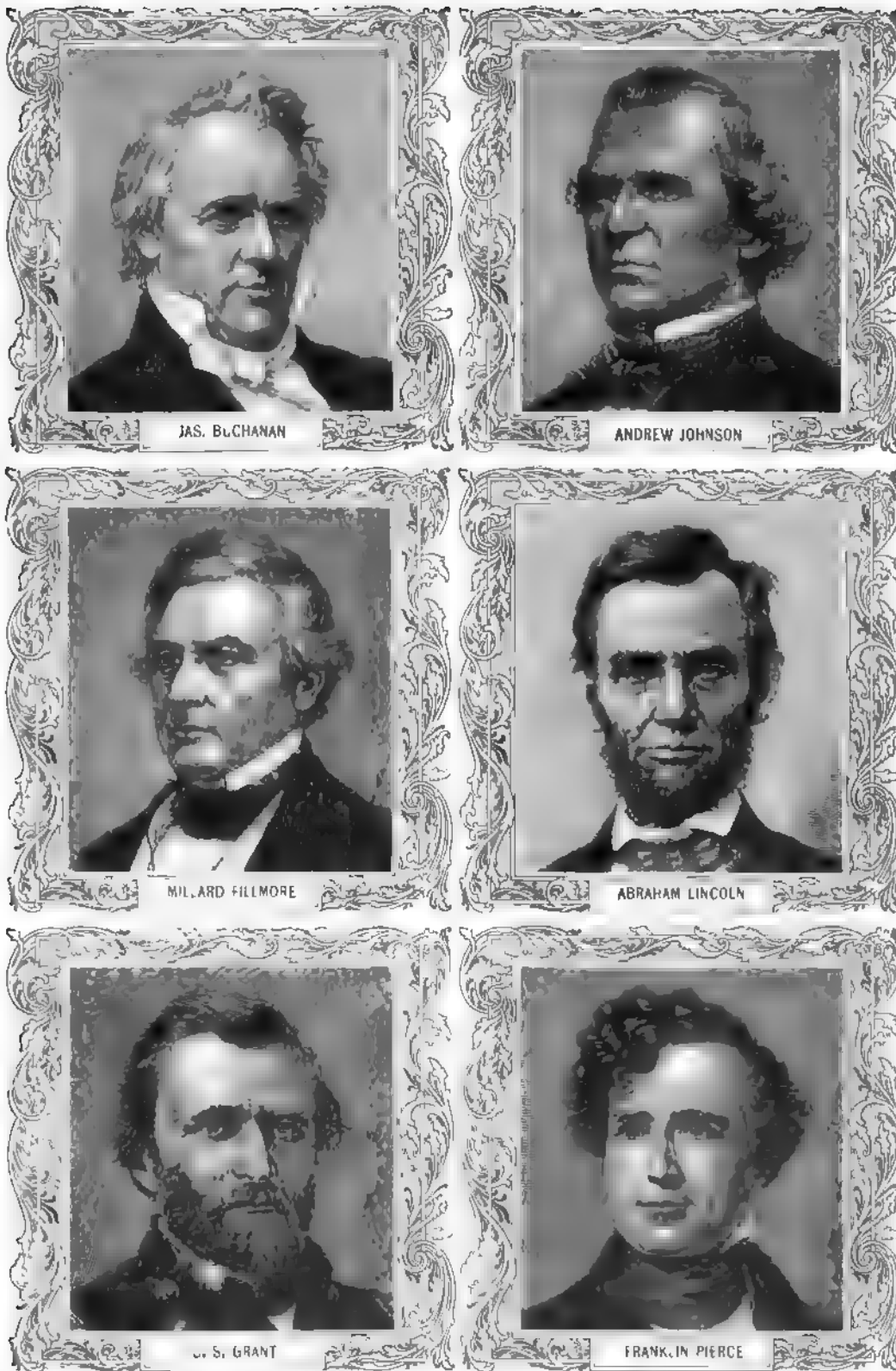


FRANKLIN PIERCE.

The Presidential election of 1852 was a remarkably quiet one and resulted in the choice of the Democratic nominees, Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, for President, and William Rufus King, of Alabama, for Vice-President, by an overwhelming majority over the Whig candidates, General Winfield Scott, of New York, and William A. Graham, of North Carolina. John Parker Hale, of New Hampshire, an able statesman, who had distinguished himself in Congress as an anti-slavery man, was

Quincy Adams, were now in their graves. General Scott carried but four States—Vermont, Massachusetts, Kentucky and Tennessee.

Franklin Pierce was inaugurated President on March 4, 1853. For a time, during the earlier part of his Administration, another war between the United States and Mexico seemed inevitable. The fertile Mesilla Valley was claimed by both the Territory of New Mexico and the Mexican State of Chihuahua; and Santa Anna, who



PRESIDENTS FROM 1850 TO 1877.

had again become President of Mexico early in 1853, caused Chihuahua to take armed possession of the disputed territory. The dispute was settled in the summer of the same year, the United States purchasing the Mesilla Valley from Mexico by the payment of ten million dollars. As this treaty was negotiated with the Mexican government by General James Gadsden, the United States minister to Mexico, this settlement is generally called the *Gadsden Purchase*.

In the summer of 1853 an event occurred in the Eastern Mediterranean which increased the respect for the American flag abroad. Martin Koszta, a Hungarian refugee, who had become a naturalized American citizen, had been seized and taken on board an Austrian vessel in the harbor of Smyrna, in Asiatic Turkey. Captain Ingraham, in command of the United States sloop-of-war *St. Louis*, then in that harbor, demanded the release of the refugee, and when his demand was not complied with he cleared his vessel for action, whereupon Koszta was promptly released and came on board the *St. Louis*. Captain Ingraham said: "I cannot fail; my cause is just." He was sustained by his government, and his bold and decisive action was applauded in America and Europe. He was a South Carolinian and served in the Confederate navy during the great Civil War of 1861-65. The Austrian government protested against Captain Ingraham's proceeding, and the Chevalier Hulseman, the Austrian minister at Washington, demanded reparation.

During Pierce's Administration naval expeditions were sent by the United States government to explore the North Pacific Ocean, between the Pacific shores of America and Asia. Land expeditions were sent across the continent to explore routes for railroads to the Pacific Ocean. In the summer of 1854 a treaty of commerce and friendship was negotiated with the Emperor of Japan by Commodore Matthew C. Perry, on the part of the United States government. During the same year a *Reciprocity Treaty* was concluded between the United States and Great Britain, by which almost

free commerce was established between the United States and the British North American provinces. At the same time the government of the Sandwich, or Hawaiian, Islands, under the influence of American missionaries, was seeking annexation to the United States, but the death of the old king, in December, 1854, put an end to the negotiations. In 1854 a World's Fair was held in the Crystal Palace in New York City.

The seizure of the United States steamer *Black Warrior* by the Spanish authorities in Cuba, in February, 1854, led to trouble with Spain, but the difficulty was amicably settled. Three United States ministers in Europe—Mr. Buchanan in England, Mr. Mason in France, and Mr. Soulé in Spain—held a conference at Ostend, in Belgium, in October, 1854, when they issued the celebrated *Ostend Manifesto*, in which they made a plea for the unrighteous doctrine that *might makes right*, in these words: "If Spain, actuated by stubborn pride and a false sense of honor, should refuse to sell Cuba to the United States, by every law, human and divine, we shall be justified in wresting it from Spain, if we possess the power."

In 1855 the United States had disputes with foreign nations. Great Britain was offended because President Pierce dismissed the British minister at Washington and the British consuls at New York, Philadelphia and Cincinnati for violating the United States neutrality laws by enlisting men in the United States for the British army in the Crimean War.

Spain was offended because of the repeated filibustering expeditions of lawless men from the United States to seize her Island of Cuba. The Central American States were offended because of the filibustering expedition under William Walker, of California, who invaded Nicaragua in the summer of 1855, and was allowed to open diplomatic relations with the United States government. Walker was driven out of Nicaragua in the spring of 1857, but afterward returned, whereupon he was captured and shot.

The United States government did very little to suppress these aggressions against friendly neighbors and United States naval officers even afforded the filibusters encouragement and support. Thus Captain Hollins, with a United States war vessel, afforded aid to the filibusters by bombarding Greytown, a town of Nicaragua under British protection, in 1854. This outrageous and unprovoked attack by Captain Hollins threatened to involve the United States in trouble with Great Britain. Captain Hollins served in the Confederate navy during the great Civil War of 1861-65.

During the winter of 1855-56 the Indians of Oregon and Washington Territories, incensed at the bad conduct of government agents and speculators, made war on the white settlers, defeated the United States troops sent against them, and massacred several white families. General Wool led troops against them and the war ended in the summer of 1856.

The agitation of the slavery question was suddenly revived, in the beginning of 1854, by a bill reported in the United States Senate by Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories, proposing the organization of the vast region between the Missouri river and the Rocky Mountains into two large Territories, one to be named Kansas and the other Nebraska, and leaving the people of those Territories to decide for themselves whether or not they would have slavery within their borders. The passage of this bill would, in effect, annul the Missouri Compromise; and for this reason it was violently opposed in the Free States, where the greatest excitement prevailed, and where public meetings were held by men of all parties to protest against the measure. The bill was, however, passed in 1854, and thus the Missouri Compromise was virtually repealed. The most bitter sectional feeling was beginning to be felt between the North and the South.

The pro-slavery men of the Slave States now determined to make Kansas slave territory, by colonizing it with emigrants from

their section of the Union, while the anti-slavery men of the Free States resolved to secure the Territory to freedom by peopling it with settlers holding their views. A heavy emigration to Kansas at once set in from both the Free and the Slave States; and, as a natural consequence, there was civil war in the Territory for several years. The issue was: "No freedom outside the Free States; no slavery outside the Slave States."

In 1854 a new political organization, called the *American* or *Know-Nothing Party*, whose leading principle was "Americans shall govern America," sprung up very suddenly, and carried some of the State elections of that year; but this party collapsed as suddenly as it had arisen, in consequence of the overshadowing importance of the slavery issue. This party was called American because of its opposition to foreigners and foreign influence in American politics. It was called Know-Nothing from the secret Know-Nothing lodges which secretly organized the party. The *Native American Party*, with the same principles, had existed ten years before.

The whole North was aroused by an aggravated assault upon Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts, while he was making a speech in the United States Senate, denouncing the "Crime against Kansas," by Preston S. Brooks, of South Carolina, May 22, 1856. Senator Sumner was disabled for some time. The feeling between members of Congress from the Slave States and those from the Free States was most intense, and at various times between 1850 and 1860 duels and violent encounters were threatened.

The repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and the growing determination in the Free States to prevent the extension of slavery, led to the formation of a new political organization, called the *Republican Party*, whose leading principle was opposition to the extension of slavery into the Territories of the Republic. The Democratic party had become the great defender of the slave power, holding that Congress had no

right to prohibit the extension of slavery. The Whig party had gone to pieces, partly on account of its overwhelming defeat in the Presidential campaign of 1852, and partly because it was afraid to take a decided stand for or against the extension of slavery. Parties were thus completely re-organized on the new issue which the slavery question forced into American politics, in spite of the efforts and the disgust of politicians. The tariff and other economic questions, which had been the issue between the Whig and Democratic parties, were cast into the shade by the overwhelming moral issue of the slavery question. The Democratic party was now composed of the pro-slavery Democrats, and was joined by the pro-slavery Whigs. The old Free Soilers and the anti-slavery Whigs and Democrats constituted the new Republican party, which existed only in the Free States. It was simply the old Free Soil party with a new name and grown to immense proportions. The Liberty party of 1844, with James G. Birney as its Presidential candidate, was the first party with the same view against slavery extension.

The founders and leaders of the new Republican party were such able statesmen and United States Senators as William Henry Seward of New York, Charles Sumner and Henry Wilson of Massachusetts, Salmon Portland Chase and Benjamin Franklin Wade of Ohio, and Lyman Trumbull of Illinois, and many able men in the House of Representatives; besides others out of Congress, among whom were Horace Greeley, editor and founder of the *New York Tribune*, Henry J. Raymond, the editor of the *New York Times*, and others. The great pulpit orator, the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, was a great champion of the anti-slavery sentiment which his distinguished sister, Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, had done so much to create by her famous work, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, which appeared in the early fifties, and which painted the institution of slavery in the darkest colors. Among prominent anti-slavery men in the Slave States was

Cassius M. Clay, of Kentucky, cousin of Henry Clay.

The Republican party, which had its entire strength in the Free States, in its first National Convention in Philadelphia, June 17, 1856, nominated Colonel John Charles Fremont, of California—"the Pathfinder"—for President, and William Lewis Dayton, of New Jersey, for Vice-President. The Democratic party, which had its chief strength in the Slave States, in its National Convention, in Cincinnati, June 5, 1856, nominated James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, for President, and John Cabell Breckinridge, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. The American, or Know-Nothing party, which was opposed to foreign influence in American affairs, in a National Convention in Philadelphia, February 22, 1856, nominated ex-President Millard Fillmore, of New York, for President, and Andrew Jackson Donelson, of Tennessee, for Vice-President. The campaign was an exciting one, and the election resulted in the choice of Buchanan and Breckinridge, who carried all the Slave States but Maryland, with five Free States—New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Illinois and California. Fremont and Dayton carried the other eleven Free States, namely, the six New England States, and New York, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin and Iowa. Fillmore and Donelson carried but one State—Maryland. Slave States that had formerly been Whig were now Democratic, and Free States that had formerly been Democratic were now Republican. The Liberty party had polled but a small vote in 1844. The Free Soil party polled about three hundred thousand votes in 1848, but only half that many in 1852. The new Republican party, the legitimate successor and heir of the principles of these two small parties, polled over thirteen hundred thousand votes in 1856.

James Buchanan was inaugurated on March 4, 1857, fifteenth President of the United States. He was an able statesman and had been in public life since the War of 1812, the period when Clay, Webster and

Calhoun first entered public life. He was first a Federalist, and as such had been a member of the House of Representatives for a decade. He was afterward United States Senator for several terms as a Democrat. He was Minister to Russia in 1831, Secretary of State in President Polk's Cabinet, and Minister to England under President Pierce.

Two days after President Buchanan's in-

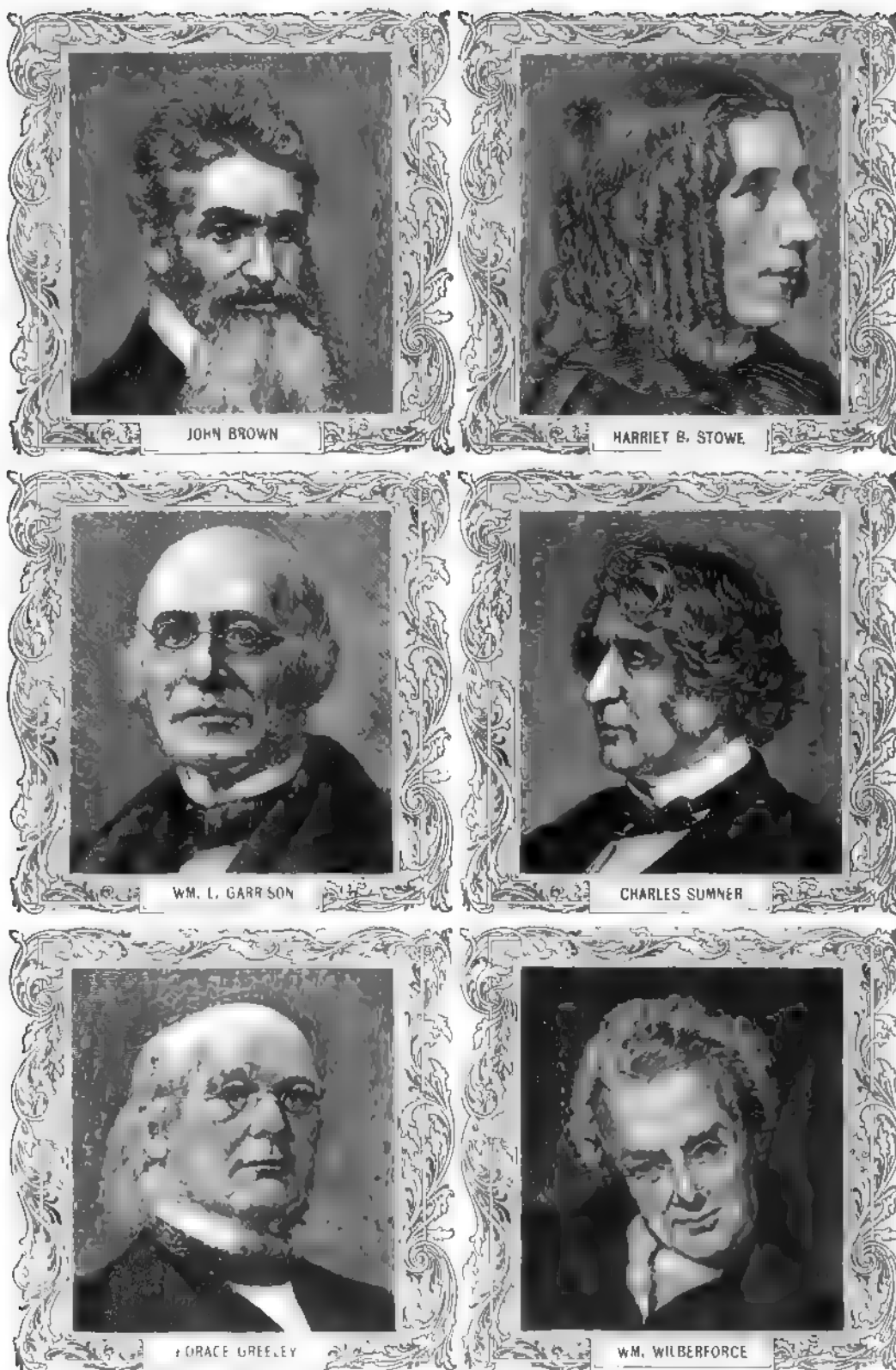
status of the negro under the Articles of Confederation, the National Constitution and the State Constitutions, maintaining that our Revolutionary fathers did not include the negro when they defined the rights of mankind; that they considered him far inferior to the white man, and that the negro "had no rights which the white man was bound to respect." Along with this decision was rendered an extra-judicial opinion that



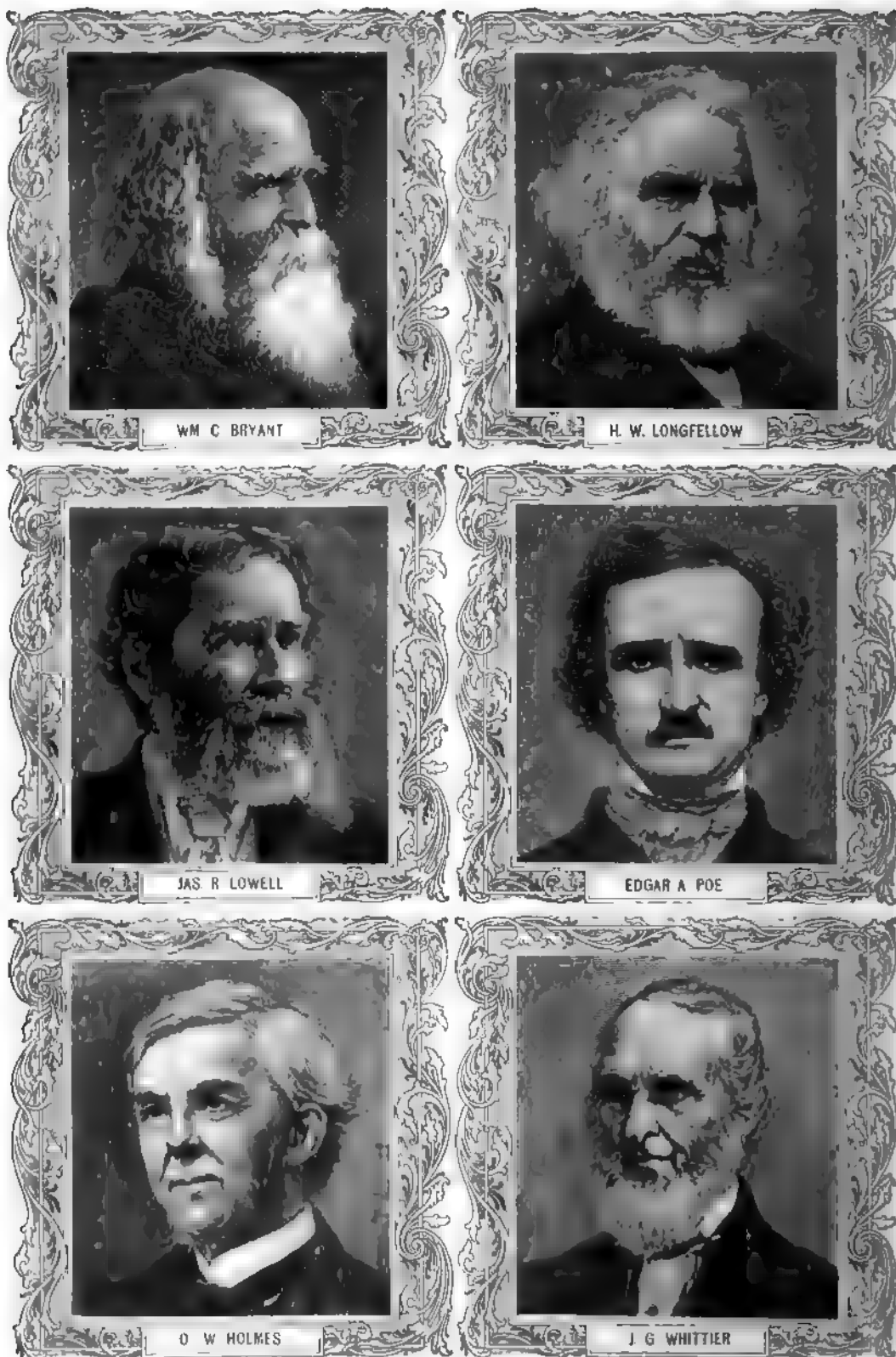
JAMES BUCHANAN.

auguration, March 6, 1857, the Supreme Court of the United States rendered a decision, delivered by Chief Justice Roger B. Taney, and called the *Dred Scott Decision*, because it was in the case of Dred Scott, who had once been a slave in Missouri, but who now claimed to be free on account of having been taken by his master into a Free State. This famous decision declared that neither negro slaves nor freed negro slaves, nor their descendants, could become citizens of the United States, the Chief Justice reciting the

the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional, and that under the Constitution of the United States, slaveholders have a right to take their slaves with them into the Territories of the United States and to own them there as their property. This decision aroused still further the anti-slavery sentiment in the North. The decision was sustained by the Administration and the Democratic party, because it was the decision of the United States Supreme Court. The Republican party opposed the decision on



THE ABOLITION MOVEMENT.



AMERICAN POETS.

the ground that it was intrinsically wrong and because it included points not properly before the Court.

Early in 1857 the Mormons in the Territory of Utah threatened to rebel against the National government, because Congress refused to admit their Territory as a State of the Union. They destroyed the records of the United States District Court in their Territory and were guilty of other revolutionary proceedings, besides looking to Brigham Young for all laws. President Buchanan appointed Colonel Cumming to the office of Governor of the Territory, and sent a body of United States troops under Colonel Albert Sidney Johnston to enforce the laws of the United States and to suppress any attempt at rebellion in Utah. When the troops arrived the Mormons concluded to obey the laws, and the difficulty was settled without bloodshed.

The United States had slight difficulties with foreign nations in 1857 and 1858. The United States vessel *Waterwitch* was fired upon by the troops of Paraguay, in South America, while she was ascending the Paraguay river. A United States naval expedition under Commodore Shubrick obtained satisfaction from the Paraguayan government and the matter was settled. In the summer of 1858 the crews of British war vessels in the Gulf of Mexico engaged in the suppression of the African slave trade boarded about forty American merchantmen suspected of being slavers, but the British government itself put a stop to the actions of its crews, and all troubles passed away.

The Dred Scott Decision aroused the agitation of the slavery question in all its intensity, and the greatest excitement prevailed in the Free States. During 1857 measures were taken for the admission of Kansas into the Union as a State. A State constitution which excluded slavery from Kansas was framed at Topeka by the anti-slavery party, while the pro-slavery party framed a constitution at Lecompton tolerating slavery within the Territory. Although the people of Kansas rejected the

pro-slavery constitution, in January, 1858, by over ten thousand majority, President Buchanan, in a message to Congress, recommended its acceptance by that body. Congress, however, decided that it should be left to a vote of the people of the Territory, who again rejected it by almost ten thousand majority; and finally, on January 29, 1861, Kansas was admitted into the Union as a Free State. Two other States were admitted into the Union during Buchanan's Administration—Minnesota, in 1858, and Oregon, in 1859.

The Fugitive Slave Law of 1850 was still obnoxious to the great body of the people of the Free States; and to guard against any abuses of the law by the kidnaping of free negroes, the Legislatures of Maine, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Ohio, Michigan and Wisconsin passed what were called *Personal Liberty Laws*. These State laws greatly offended the people of the Slave States, who regarded their enactment as showing a lack of good faith on the part of the people of the North in carrying out the Compromise Act of 1850.

During Buchanan's Administration efforts were made by a few influential individuals in the Slave States to reopen the African slave trade, and native Africans were landed on the coasts of the Southern States in defiance of the laws. In Louisiana attempts were made to legalize the trade under what was called the "African Apprentice System," and the Grand Jury of Savannah openly protested against the laws when obliged to find bills against some persons engaged in the illegal slave trade. These proceedings increased the slavery agitation and strengthened the Republican party, the great opponent of the extension of slavery into the Territories of the United States.

In the fall of 1859 great excitement was produced in the Slave States by the foolish and lawless attempt of John Brown to liberate the slaves of Virginia. Brown had been a leading anti-slavery man in Kansas, and figured in the civil wars in that Territory, and from the part he bore in the battle of Ossawatimie he was called "Brown of Ossa-

watonic." On Sunday night, October 16, 1859, at the head of twenty-one followers, three of them his own sons and five colored men, Brown seized the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry, intending to arm such slaves as approached. He failed in inciting a slave insurrection, and was overpowered and made prisoner by Virginia militia, sent by Governor Henry A. Wise, and by United States troops, under Colonel Robert Edmund

John Brown's raid produced intense alarm in Virginia, and Governor Wise informed President Buchanan and the Governors of Maryland, Ohio and Pennsylvania that if another invasion assailed his State he would pursue the invaders into any State and punish them wherever arms could reach them. It was believed in the Slave States that Brown was only the agent of a large party in the Free States who had formed a plot



JOHN BROWN.

Lee, sent by President Buchanan. Two of Brown's sons were killed in the fight. Brown was tried and convicted on the charges of treason, murder and inciting slaves to insurrection. Governor Wise signed the death warrant, and Brown was hanged December 2, 1859, under the laws of Virginia. John Brown was a descendant of Peter Brown, one of the Pilgrim Fathers who came over in the *Mayflower*, and a grandson of John Brown, a Revolutionary soldier.

to free all the slaves. During the next session of Congress a committee, with James M. Mason, of Virginia, the author of the Fugitive Slave Law of 1850, as chairman, was appointed in the United States Senate to investigate the matter, and Clement L. Vallandigham, a Democratic Representative in Congress from Ohio, volunteered to prove the charge against the Northern people; but the investigation proved that Brown had no other accomplices than his twenty-one immediate followers.

The elections of 1858 and 1859 showed a remarkable and growing strength of the Republican party, and the slave power feared that its political control of the Nation would soon end, as the Northern wing of the Democratic or ruling party, which had thus far sided with the slavery interest, now showed signs of breaking away from that interest, under the leadership of Senator Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois. The Southern leaders were then fully prepared for a rupture with their Democratic brethren in the North, which rupture came about in the Democratic National Convention in Charleston, South Carolina, in the spring of 1860, as we shall now see.

The Democratic National Convention assembled in the hall of the South Carolina Institute, at Charleston, April 23, 1860. Caleb Cushing, of Massachusetts, was chairman of the Convention. He, and Benjamin F. Butler, also of Massachusetts, were friendly to the Southern interest, and Butler was a great personal and political friend of Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi. The Northern or Free States wing of the party were the stronger in the Convention, and



JOHN C. BRECKINRIDGE.

their choice for President was Senator Douglas, on a platform of the Douglas principle of "Popular Sovereignty," as enunciated in the Democratic National Convention which nominated Buchanan and Breckinridge at Cincinnati in 1856. The Southern or Slave States wing of the party, the weaker in the Convention, wanted a

platform recognizing slavery as a National institution, and the right of slaveholders to carry all their property with them into the Territories. When the Convention, by a large majority, reaffirmed the Douglas doctrine of "Popular Sovereignty," the delegations from the Slave States seceded



STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS.

from the Convention, thus splitting the Democratic party by the wedge of slavery.

The Democratic delegates from the Slave States met in convention in June, first in Richmond, Virginia, and afterward in Baltimore, where they nominated Vice-President John Cabell Breckinridge, of Kentucky, for President, and Joseph Lane, of Oregon, for Vice-President, on a platform asserting that neither Congress nor the Legislature or people of a Territory had a right to exclude slavery from such Territory, and that slaveholders had a constitutional right to take their slaves into any Territory of the United States as well as their other property, regardless of the wishes of the people of that Territory.

The Democratic delegates from the Free States also met in convention in Baltimore in June, and nominated Senator Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, for President, and James A. Fitzpatrick, of Alabama, for Vice-President, on a platform declaring that Congress had no power over slavery in the Territories, but that the people of a Territory had the right to adopt or exclude slavery, as they chose. As the nominee for Vice-President

declined, Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia, was substituted instead.

A new party, called the *Constitutional Union Party*, in a National Convention in Baltimore, May 10, nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, for President, and Edward Everett, the great Massachusetts orator and statesman, for Vice-President, on a platform ignoring the questions then agitating the public mind, but declaring for "the Constitution, the Union and the enforcement of the laws."

The Republicans, in their National Convention in Chicago, May 16, nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, for President, and Hannibal Hamlin, of Maine, for Vice-President, on a platform maintaining that Congress had the right to exclude slavery from the Territories. Mr. Lincoln had attracted the attention of the Nation by his joint debates with Senator Douglas in a canvass of Illinois for the United States Senatorship in 1858, a canvass which resulted in the election of a Douglas Democratic Legislature. Mr. Lincoln had said: "This Nation cannot exist half slave and half free." Senator William H. Seward, of New York, the great leader of the Republican party, had said: "There is an irrepressible conflict between freedom and slavery."

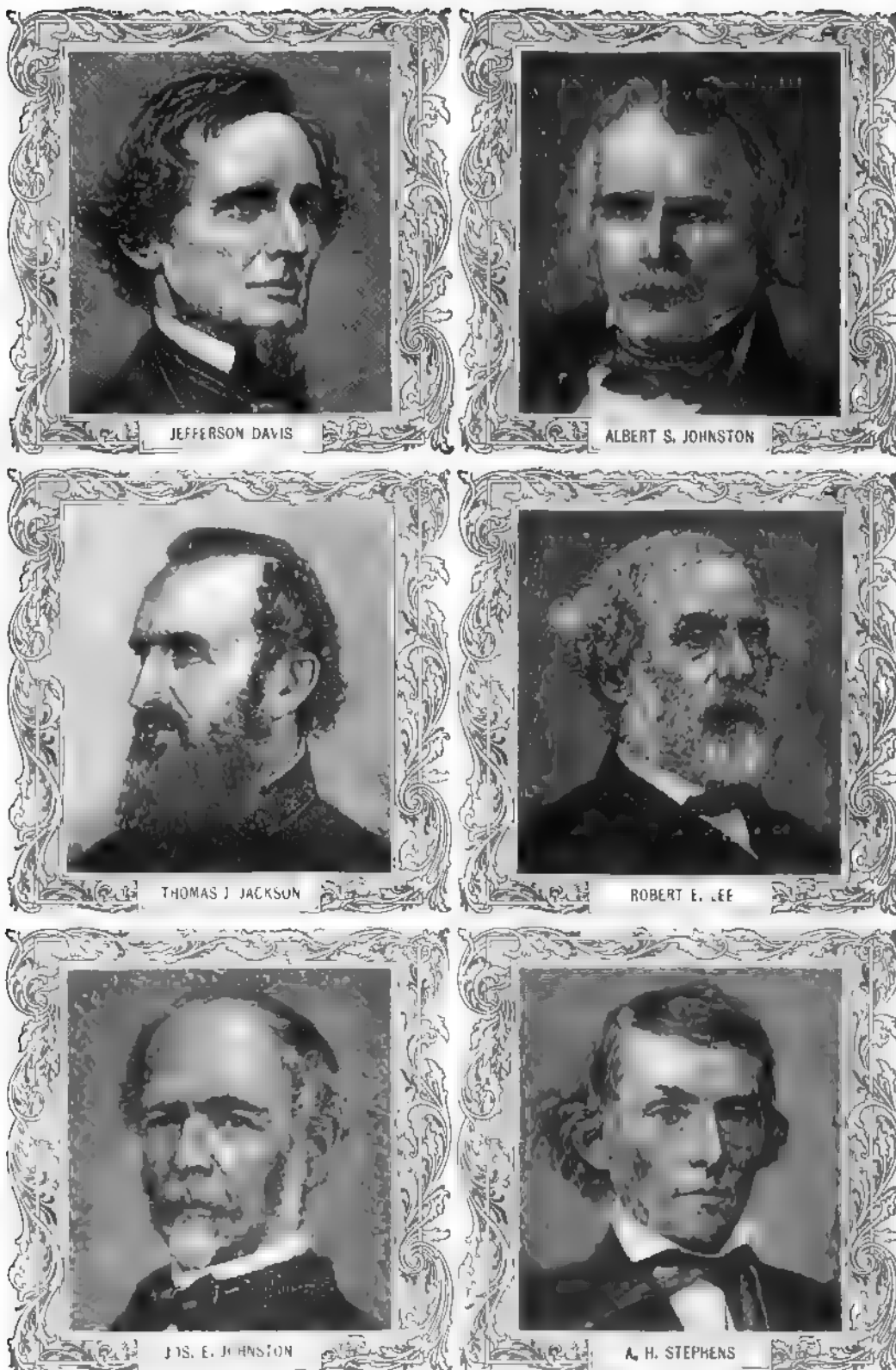
Thus there were four candidates for the Presidency in 1860—the most exciting Presidential campaign in the Nation's history. The election resulted in favor of Lincoln and Hamlin, who carried all the Free States, excepting New Jersey, and received all but three of the Electoral votes of that State. Douglas and Johnson carried Missouri and also received three Electoral votes from New Jersey. Breckinridge and Lane carried all the Slave States, except Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee, which were carried by Bell and Everett. Though Mr. Lincoln had a majority of the Electors, he was in a minority of nearly a million of the popular vote.

No sooner was the election of Mr. Lincoln known throughout the United States than the politicians of the Slave States began to carry out plans which they had long con-

sidered, for the secession of their States from the Union, and their establishment, in their section, of an independent confederacy of Slave States. The Southern leaders pleaded the right of revolution and the law of self-preservation in justification of their action, claiming that Mr. Lincoln would be a sectional President, as his entire support came from the Free States; that he was the representative of the Abolitionists, who had for years demanded the abolition of slavery, which would have deprived the slaveholders of their rights and their property; and that he would interfere with the domestic institutions of their respective States. The great leaders in the secession movement were Jefferson Davis and A. G. Brown, of Mississippi; Louis T. Wigfall, of Texas; John Slidell and Judah P. Benjamin, of Louisiana; William L. Yancey, of Alabama; Howell Cobb and Robert Toombs, of Georgia; the Rhett, of South Carolina; T. Clingman, of North Carolina; James M. Mason and R. M. T. Hunter, of Virginia. The secession movement was aided by a secret organization called the *Knights of the Golden Circle*, which had existed in the South for several years.

As in 1832, South Carolina took the lead in the hostile attitude toward the National government—an attitude regarded by the Northern people as rebellion, but considered in the South as a just movement for Southern independence. A State convention assembled at Charleston, and passed an ordinance of secession, December 20, 1860, declaring South Carolina to be separated from the Union forever. Within six weeks six other Slave States seceded—Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, in January, 1861, and Texas, February 1, 1861. In the Georgia convention, Alexander Hamilton Stephens, an able statesman who had long been a member of Congress from that State, first as a Whig and then as a Democrat, made a strong speech against secession.

On the 4th of February, 1861, delegates from the seceded States met in a Congress at Montgomery, the capital of Alabama, and formed a Southern Confederacy, with



JEFFERSON DAVIS

ALBERT S. JOHNSTON

THOMAS J. JACKSON

ROBERT E. LEE

J. S. JOHNSTON

A. H. STEPHENS

CONFEDERATE LEADERS.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.



the title of the *Confederate States of America*. The flag adopted by this Congress for the new Confederacy consisted of three bars, the upper and lower red, the middle one white, with a blue field containing a circle of seven stars, to represent the seven Confederate States, afterward increased to eleven stars when four more States seceded. This flag—often spoken of as the "Stars and Bars"—had its colors of red, white and blue borrowed from the "Stars and Stripes," just as the Constitution of the Confederacy was borrowed from the Constitution of the United States.

On the 9th of February, 1861, the Confederate Congress elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, President of the Confederacy, with Alexander Hamilton Stephens, of Georgia, as Vice-President. Jefferson Davis was the son-in-law of President Zachary Taylor, under whom he served in the battle of Buena Vista, and had been Secretary of War in President Pierce's Cabinet, and United States Senator from Mississippi, and was one of the ablest statesmen of the South. The Confederate Cabinet was headed by Judah P. Benjamin, of Louisiana, an able man and a Jew by birth, as Secretary of State. The provisional constitution at first



ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS.

adopted by the Confederate Congress was succeeded by a permanent one, March 11, 1861, which provided for a Congress consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives, elected in the same manner as the two Houses of the Congress of the United States.

Most of the property of the National government in the seceded States—forts, arsenals, mints, ships and custom houses—were seized by the secessionists, who raised arms to fight for their independence and to defend their States against invasion by



ROBERT TOOMBS.

United States troops. The only forts remaining in possession of the National government were Fortress Monroe, in southeastern Virginia; the forts at Key West and the Tortugas, off the southern coast of Florida; Fort Sumter, near Charleston, South Carolina, bravely occupied by Major Robert Anderson; and Fort Pickens, near Pensacola, Florida, gallantly held by Lieutenant Adam J. Slemmer.

Major Anderson at first occupied Fort Moultrie; but fearing that the excited secessionists in Charleston might surprise and overpower him, he transferred his garrison to the more formidable Fort Sumter, on the night of December 26, 1860. This act of Major Anderson aroused the indignation of the South Carolinians, who immediately took possession of Fort Moultrie and Castle Pinckney, strengthened these posts, and erected batteries to reduce Fort Sumter. On January 9, 1861, the South Carolinians fired upon the government steamer *Star of the West*, conveying troops and supplies for Fort Sumter,

and compelled the unarmed steamship to turn back. Lieutenant Adam J. Slemmer, at Pensacola, Florida, first occupied Fort McRae; but fearing an attack by Florida and Alabama troops, he transferred his garrison to Fort Pickens, one of the strongest fortresses on the Gulf coast, which he gallantly held, defying the Confederate troops sent against him.

In February, 1861, General Twiggs, who commanded the United States troops in Texas, surrendered his whole force of twenty-



JUDAH P. BENJAMIN.

five hundred men, and all the military posts and munitions of war in his department, to the authorities of that State. As those troops from the North could not be seduced from their allegiance to the National government, they were permitted to return to their homes.

President Buchanan was at first hampered in this emergency, as several of his Cabinet officers who were among the secessionists were doing all in their power to deprive the National government of all means to maintain its authority in the seceded States. John B. Floyd, of Virginia, Secretary of War, transferred most of the arms from the forts and arsenals in the Free States to those in the Slave States; and Howell Cobb, of Georgia, Secretary of the Treasury, tried to

injure the public credit and bankrupt the National treasury. The public offices and even the National army were full of men in sympathy with the secession movement.

Lewis Cass, of Michigan, Secretary of State, resigned because of disgust at the imbecility of the Administration; and Secretaries Floyd and Cobb resigned because of sympathy with the secession movement, as did also Jacob Thompson, of Mississippi, Secretary of the Interior. Most members of both Houses of Congress from the seceded States resigned their offices to take part in the secession movement, as did also most of the United States army and navy officers from the same States.

President Buchanan's Cabinet was now reorganized. Jeremiah S. Black, of Pennsylvania, the former Attorney-General, became Secretary of State; Joseph Holt, of Kentucky, the former Postmaster-General, became Secretary of the Treasury; John A. Dix, of New York, became Secretary of War; and Edwin M. Stanton, of Pennsylvania, became Attorney-General. Holt, Dix and Stanton—though they had supported Vice-President Breckinridge, the candidate of the Slave States for President—were strong Union men and did all in their power to stem the secession movement and infuse vigor into the Administration. The new Secretary of War telegraphed an order to the lieutenant of a revenue cutter at New Orleans to arrest the captain of the cutter, who was a Disunion man, and to assume command of the cutter, and added the words: "If any one attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot."

For the purpose of averting civil war Congress seemed disposed to make concessions. With the aid of Republican votes, governments tolerating slavery were arranged for the new Territories, thus placing the question at issue in Mr. Lincoln's election beyond his control. Both Houses of Congress adopted a resolution proposing an amendment of the National Constitution prohibiting Congress forever from interfering with slavery in the States in which it existed, and prominent Republicans expressed



JEFFERSON DAVIS.



themselves as willing to bring about a repeal or modification of the Personal Liberty Laws, but without avail.

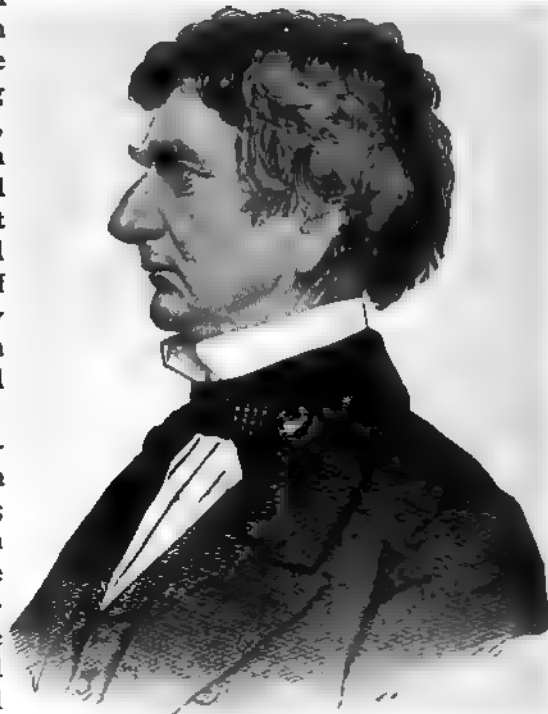
On the 4th of February, 1861, the very day on which the Southern Confederacy was formed at Montgomery, Alabama, an assemblage, known as the *Peace Convention*, met at Washington for the professed purpose of preserving peace and saving the Union. This convention was called on the recommendation of the Virginia Legislature and was presided over by ex-President John Tyler, of Virginia. Twenty-one States were represented; the States not represented being the seven seceded States and Arkansas, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Oregon and California. The Peace Convention had no practical result and its action was not approved by Congress, because it proposed to nationalize slavery by amendments of the National Constitution, as suggested by the *Crittenden Compromise*, offered by John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, in the United States Senate.

It was feared that President-elect Lincoln would be assassinated in Baltimore, on his way to Washington to be inaugurated; but the President-elect took an earlier train than the one he had been expected to take and he arrived at the National capital unmolested. Fears were entertained that the new President could not be inaugurated without bloodshed. Washington swarmed with Secessionists and was surrounded by a population in sympathy with secession. But the public peace was preserved by means of the military collected by the timely precaution of Lieutenant-General Winfield Scott and the new Administration was peacefully inaugurated.

THE CIVIL WAR.

On the 4th of March, 1861, Abraham Lincoln was inaugurated sixteenth President of the United States. He appointed an able Cabinet, with such distinguished statesmen and Republican leaders as William Henry Seward, of New York, for Secretary of State, and Salmon Portland Chase, of Ohio, for Secretary of the Treasury. In his inaugural he declared that he had neither

the right nor the inclination to interfere with the institution of slavery in any State, that no State could secede from the Union, that ordinances of secession were void, and that he would faithfully execute the laws of the Union in all the States. He found himself confronted with difficulties greater than any that ever before beset any Chief Magistrate of the Nation. The National Treasury was embarrassed. The little army of



WILLIAM HENRY SEWARD.

the United States—sixteen thousand men—was on the remote Western frontiers to check the Indians, and the little navy was in distant seas.

The Confederate government at Montgomery had organized an army, officered largely by men who had just resigned their positions in the United States army. One of these officers, Pierre G. T. Beauregard, of Louisiana, was commissioned brigadier-general, and was in command of several thousand Confederate troops at Charleston, South Carolina. Learning that the National government intended to send supplies to Fort Sumter, Beauregard demanded the surren-

der of the fort. Its commander, Major Robert Anderson, refused to comply with this demand, and on April 12, 1861, Beauregard opened a heavy bombardment on the fort, which continued the following day, setting fire to the officers' quarters and the barracks. On Sunday, April 14, when the provisions and ammunition of the garrison were nearly exhausted, Anderson and his men evacuated the fort and sailed for New York; and the fort was immediately taken possession of and garrisoned by the assailants. Notwithstanding the severity of the bombardment and cannonade on both sides, not a soldier on either side was killed by the enemy's balls, but one United States soldier was killed and several wounded by the accidental explosion of a gun as the garrison were evacuating the fort.

The news of the fall of Fort Sumter aroused the most intense military enthusiasm in the Confederate States and thoroughly fired the Southern heart; while it spread like lightning through the Northern States, and, like the attendant thunder peal, it aroused every Northern heart. It was fully recognized in both sections that the issue of civil war was forced upon the country, and both sides prepared for the conflict, though each at first vastly underestimated the other's strength and earnestness. Thus commenced the greatest civil war in the world's history—a struggle in which Americans fought against Americans. Most of the leading commanders of both armies had fought side by side under Taylor and Scott in Mexico. The Northern people still considered both sections as one country and regarded secession as rebellion and those engaged in it as rebels. The Confederates considered the two sections as now constituting two separate countries and regarded themselves as fighting for Southern independence and not as engaged in rebellion against constituted authority.

On the day after the evacuation of Fort Sumter, April 15, 1861, President Lincoln called for seventy-five thousand volunteers to serve for three months in restoring the National authority, and summoned Con-

gress to meet on July 4. The people of the Northern States warmly responded to the President's call. Within two weeks two hundred thousand men had offered their services to the National government, and forty million dollars had been contributed to carry on the war. Party spirit was for the time forgotten in the Free States, and the sentiment in that section of the Union was well-nigh unanimous in support of the National government and for the maintenance of the Union.

Two days after President Lincoln's call for seventy-five thousand volunteers, April 17, 1861, Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate States, issued letters-of-marque



SALMON PORTLAND CHASE.

and reprisal to all who would prey upon American commerce. Two days afterward, April 19, 1861, President Lincoln proclaimed the blockade of the Southern ports.

The Confederates made great exertions to seize the National capital, as the first and most important part of their plan. Thousands of Confederate troops from all the Slave States, armed with weapons taken from the National government, were hurrying into Virginia for that purpose. Jefferson Davis said: "We are now determined to maintain our position, and make all who oppose us smell Southern powder and feel Southern steel." Alexander Hamilton Stephens hurried from Georgia, through the Carolinas, into Virginia, with the cry of "On to Washington!" Leroy Pope Walker, the Confederate Secretary of War, said: "I



PROMINENT AMERICANS.

will prophesy that the flag which now flaunts the breeze here will float over the dome of the Capitol at Washington before the first of May. Let them try Southern chivalry, and test the extent of Southern resources, and it may float eventually over Faneuil Hall in Boston." The most intense desire existed among the Confederate leaders to seize Washington, and the people of the cotton States soon realized the prediction of Governor Pickens, of South Carolina, who said: "You may plant your seed in peace, for Old Virginia will have to bear the brunt of battle."

Old Virginia did bear the brunt of battle. That State held a convention which adopted an ordinance of secession, April 17, 1861, and ex-President John Tyler headed a committee which concluded a treaty with Alexander Hamilton Stephens, placing Virginia under the absolute military control of the Southern Confederacy. Governor Letcher proclaimed the independence of Virginia and recognized the Confederacy, of which his State was now a part. Virginia troops seized the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry, April 18, and the United States navy-yard at Norfolk, April 21, the United States troops having evacuated those posts after destroying all the public property they could, to prevent its falling into Confederate hands, but the Confederates obtained possession of about two thousand cannon.

Virginia officers in the United States army resigned their commissions and entered the Confederate service. Among these were Robert Edmund Lee, Thomas Jonathan Jackson, Joseph E. Johnston, James Longstreet, A. P. Hill, Daniel H. Hill, Ewell, Early and others. Robert E. Lee was the son of Captain Henry Lee, the famous American Revolutionary cavalry officer, who delivered the funeral oration on General George Washington. Robert E. Lee possessed the Arlington estate on the Potomac, opposite the National capital, through his wife, the daughter of George Washington Parke Custis, and, therefore, the great-granddaughter of Mrs. Martha Washington, the wife of the Father of his Country. The

Washingtons during the Civil War—descendants of the brothers and relatives of the first President of the United States—were on the Confederate side, and many of them fought in the Confederate army, just as their ancestors during the great Civil War in England several centuries ago fought on the side of the king against Parliament. John Augustine Washington, a grandson of a brother of the American Revolutionary commander-in-chief, was killed in a skirmish with Union troops in the summer of 1861. Several grandsons of Patrick Henry also fought in the Confederate army.

While the troops from the Slave States were hurrying forward to seize the National capital, volunteers were flocking from the Free States to defend it. The secessionists of Maryland were active, and mobs in Baltimore tried to prevent Northern volunteers from reaching Washington. They slightly assailed a few unarmed companies of Pennsylvania troops, which were the first to arrive at Washington, April 18. The next day, April 19, 1861—the eighty-sixth anniversary of the first bloodshed in the American Revolution, at Lexington and Concord, Massachusetts—the Sixth Massachusetts regiment, while passing through Baltimore on its way to Washington, was attacked by a mob of ten thousand men, encouraged by the Chief of Police and well-known citizens. Three of the troops were killed and others were wounded. Nine of the mob were killed and many were wounded. The mob then attacked a body of unarmed Pennsylvania troops and compelled them to return to Philadelphia.

The Northern people were terribly exasperated at the Baltimore mobs, and the Maryland metropolis narrowly escaped destruction. Demands were made to "lay the city in ashes," and "to turn upon it the guns of Fort McHenry." The Union volunteers arrived in Washington just in time to prevent its seizure by the Virginia troops from Harper's Ferry, and by other troops pressing forward from other Slave States. The capital was still in danger. For about a week all communication was cut off between

Washington and the Free States. The President and his Cabinet and Lieutenant-General Scott were virtual prisoners in the capital for several days, and were relieved just in time to prevent their capture by the Confederates, by the energy of the old veteran General John Ellis Wool, of New York, and the Union Defense Committee of New York City in forwarding troops and supplies.

The well-known Seventh Regiment of New York, and some Massachusetts troops under General Benjamin F. Butler, embarked at Havre de Grace, Maryland, and sailed down the Chesapeake bay to Annapolis, and seized the Annapolis and the Baltimore and Ohio railways. Butler, with a thousand troops, then marched through Baltimore on May 13, under cover of intense darkness and a thunder-storm and quietly seized Federal Hill, commanding the city. The citizens were first made aware of his presence by his proclamation published in the newspapers the next morning. By this move Butler throttled secession in Maryland, whose Governor, Thomas H. Hicks, was a Union man. National troops then quietly passed through Baltimore to Washington and by the middle of May the National capital was safe.

On the 3d of May, 1861, President Lincoln called for sixty-four thousand more men for the National army and eighteen thousand men for the navy. The aged veteran, Lieutenant-General Winfield Scott, the hero of Lundy's Lane and Mexico, was general-in-chief of the National forces, and massed troops at Washington, on the Upper Potomac and at Fortress Monroe, to defend the National capital and the line of the Potomac and to invade Virginia from that quarter.

In May, 1861, Arkansas, Tennessee and North Carolina seceded from the Union and joined the Southern Confederacy, which now consisted of eleven States. Only four Slave States still remained in the Union—Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky and Missouri. Delaware and Maryland promptly decided in favor of the Union. Kentucky

at first declared herself neutral, but finally took a firm stand in favor of the Union. Missouri was saved to the Union by the vigilance of Captain Nathaniel Lyon, who commanded the United States arsenal at St. Louis. The border Slave States which remained in the Union—Maryland, Kentucky and Missouri—had soldiers in both the Union and the Confederate armies. John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, and John Bell, of Tennessee, late candidates for President, went into the secession movement. Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, the Northern Democratic candidate, warmly sustained President Lincoln in prosecuting the war for the Union, but died early in June, 1861.

The Governors of all but two of the Slave States at the beginning of the Civil War were Secessionists. These were Burton of Delaware, Letcher of Virginia, Magoffin of Kentucky, Jackson of Missouri, Ellis of North Carolina, Pickens of South Carolina, Brown of Georgia, Perry of Florida, Moore of Alabama, Pettis of Mississippi, More of Louisiana, ReCTOR of Arkansas, and Harris of Tennessee. The two Unionist Governors were Hicks of Maryland and Houston of Texas. Hicks remained a Union man until his death; but Houston, the liberator of Texas from Mexican rule, and the first President of the independent republic of Texas, became a Secessionist in the course of a few months.

The first invasion of the Confederate States by the National forces occurred on May 24, 1861, when National troops crossed the Potomac river from Washington and took possession of Alexandria and Arlington Heights, on the opposite side of the river. This move was made to forestall the contemplated move of the Confederates under Colonel Robert E. Lee to seize Arlington Heights, which, being directly opposite Washington, commanded the National capital.

A part of the New York Fire Zouaves were the first to enter Alexandria; and their gallant young commander, Colonel Ephraim Elmer Ellsworth, took a Confederate flag from the top of the Marshall House, but, as



GENERAL ROBERT E. LEE.

he was descending the stairs, he was shot dead by Jackson, the proprietor of the house. Jackson was immediately killed by one of Ellsworth's troops. The death of Colonel Ellsworth was deeply lamented throughout the North, and the most impressive funeral obsequies were held over his body. A regiment called the *Ellsworth Avengers* was raised in the State of New York.

The National troops fortified Arlington Heights, upon which Fort Corcoran was built by the Sixty-ninth New York regiment and named in honor of its commander, Colonel Corcoran, while Fort Runyon was built at the Long Bridge by New Jersey troops. A few days later a National flotilla under Captain Ward, after encountering a Confederate battery at Sewell's Point, near Norfolk, Virginia, moved up the Chesapeake and the Potomac, and had an unsuccessful engagement with Confederate batteries at Aquia Creek, sixty miles below Washington, May 31 and June 1, 1861. Captain Ward was repulsed and killed in an attack on Confederate batteries at Matthias Point, farther down the Potomac, June 27. There the Confederate batteries defied National vessels and effectually blocked the Potomac for many months. A skirmish occurred between Ohio troops under Colonel Alexander McDowell McCook and South Carolina troops under Colonel Maxey Gregg, at Vienna, on the Alexandria and Leesburg Railway, a few miles from Washington, June 17, 1861, the anniversary of Bunker Hill.

In Southeastern Virginia, General Butler took command of the National troops at Fortress Monroe, which the Confederates under Colonel Magruder intended to seize. Some of Butler's troops went up the James river several miles and fortified Newport News. Butler suggested that slaves who had escaped from Secessionist owners be regarded as contraband of war, for which reason fugitive slaves during the war were called *contrabands*. Some of Butler's troops under General Pearce were repulsed in an attack upon the Confederate works at Big Bethel, with the loss of about fifty men,

June 10, 1861; Major Theodore Winthrop, of Massachusetts, and Lieutenant John T. Greble being among the killed.

The Confederate force under General Joseph E. Johnston, twelve thousand strong, evacuated Harper's Ferry, June 15, 1861, and retreated up the Shenandoah Valley to Winchester. The next day General Robert Patterson, with nine thousand Pennsylvania troops, crossed the Potomac into Virginia, at Williamsport, Maryland, but recrossed into Maryland. On July 2 he again crossed the river into Virginia, at the head of eleven thousand troops and occupied Martinsburg, in the Shenandoah Valley, thus securing control of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. His advance under General Abercrombie defeated a Confederate detachment under General Thomas J. Jackson, afterward the famous "Stonewall" Jackson, at Falling Waters.

At the beginning of July there were about three hundred thousand National troops in the field, confronting the Confederate forces at various points on a line extending from the Potomac westward beyond the Mississippi. More than one hundred thousand Confederate troops were stationed at various points in Virginia from Winchester to Norfolk. Their chief force was under the command of General Beauregard, at Manassas Junction, about thirty miles from the National capital, in which region it was evident that the first great shock of arms would be felt.

Agreeably to President Lincoln's call of April 15, the National Congress assembled on July 4, 1861. Congress authorized the President to raise five hundred thousand troops, and appropriated five hundred million dollars to defray the expenses of the Civil War, July 10, 1861. The Confederate government removed from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, Virginia; the latter city thus becoming the Confederate capital, July 20, 1861.

There was a great demand in the North that an advance be made on the Confederate capital, and the *New York Tribune* raised the cry of "On to Richmond!"

Accordingly, about the middle of July, General Irwin McDowell, with thirty-five thousand National troops, marched from Arlington Heights to attack the main body of the Confederates under General Beauregard at Manassas Junction. McDowell occupied Fairfax Court House and Centerville, the Confederates falling back on his approach. General Tyler's division of McDowell's army was repulsed in a severe fight at Blackburn's Ford, on Bull Run, near Centreville, on the 18th, each side losing about sixty men.

Three days afterward—at two o'clock on Sunday morning, July 21, 1861—McDowell's army resumed its advance, moving in three divisions, commanded respectively by Generals Tyler, Hunter and Heintzelman; and on the same day was fought the first battle of Bull Run, near Manassas Junction. In this sanguinary and memorable battle Beauregard had about thirty thousand men. General Patterson, commanding the Pennsylvania troops at Martinsburg, in the Shenandoah Valley, had been ordered by the National authorities to menace the Confederate army under General Joseph E. Johnston at Winchester, so as to prevent Johnston from reinforcing Beauregard; while the Confederate government had ordered Johnston to immediately reinforce Beauregard, who was now obliged to act on the defensive.

The battle was begun at eleven o'clock in the forenoon, when the Union division under General David Hunter, who had crossed at Sudley Spring, attacked the Confederates. Soon the cannonade extended to Blackburn's Ford, about five miles down the stream. The main fight was between Tyler's division and the Confederates, near the Stone Bridge, over Bull Run, on the Warrenton road, about two miles south of Sudley Spring. After four hours' dreadful fighting, the Confederates were about to lose the field and flee in disorder, when at three o'clock in the afternoon Beauregard was reinforced by General Joseph E. Johnston with six thousand fresh troops from the Shenandoah Valley, thus turning the

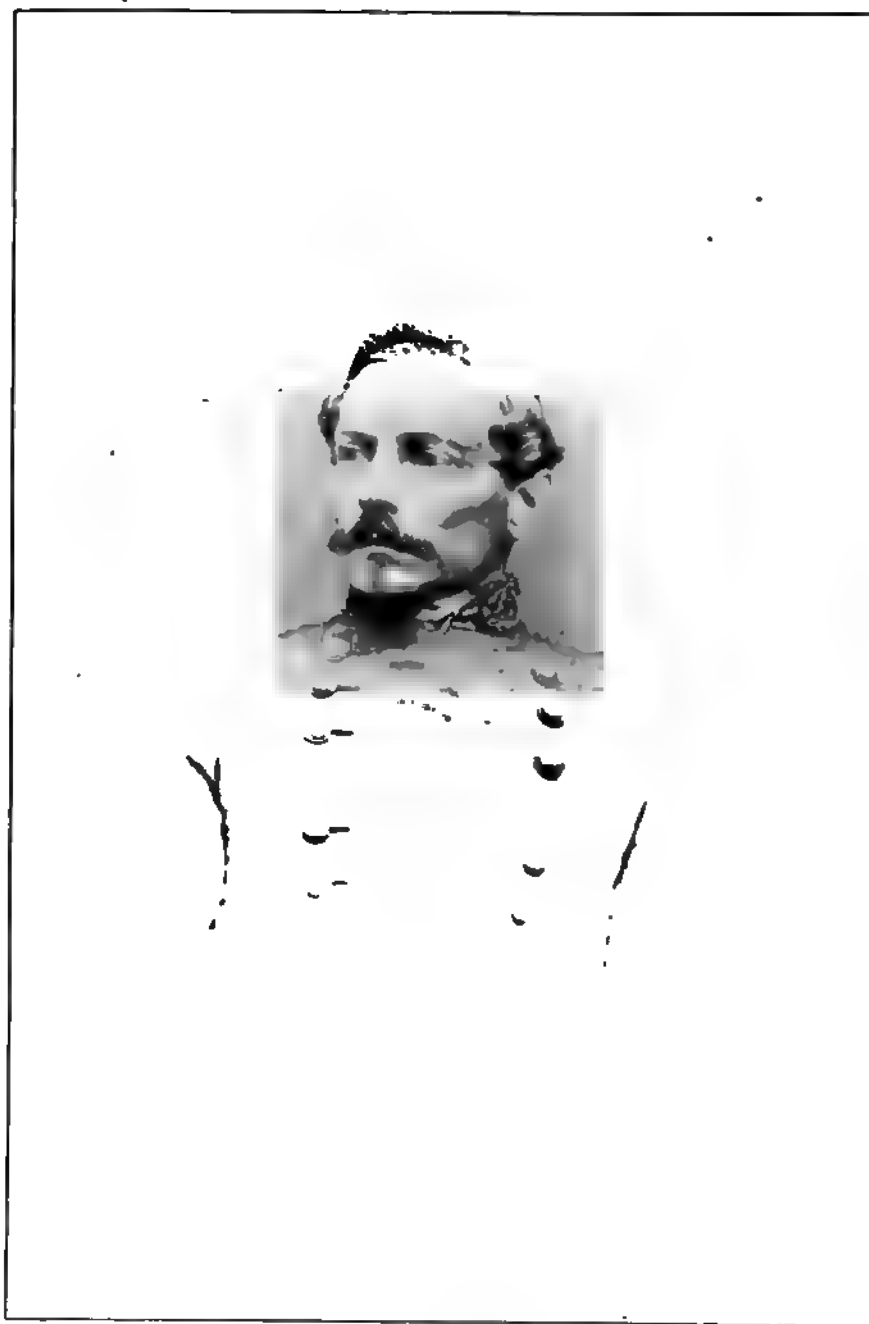
tide of battle. Johnston had eluded Patterson, who awaited information from General Scott, which he failed to receive.

The result was a complete Confederate victory, and the National army fled toward Washington in the greatest consternation, with the loss of about three thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners, besides twenty-seven cannon and a large amount of small arms, ammunition, tents and supplies, either captured or abandoned in the retreat. The Confederate lost about two thousand men, and were in no condition to pursue their demoralized enemy.

The Confederate General Bee said that the Confederate brigade under General Thomas J. Jackson "stood like a stone wall against the assaults of the enemy." Its commander was ever afterward called "Stonewall" Jackson. This great Confederate victory caused unbounded rejoicings throughout the South; and many Confederate soldiers in the battle, believing the war over, returned home. Jefferson Davis was present at the battle, and dispatched an exultant telegram to the Confederate officials at Richmond.

The intelligence of the National misfortune at Bull Run struck the people of the Northern States with dismay; but, instead of discouraging them, it caused them to exert themselves more vigorously for the great struggle, and large numbers of volunteers joined the army. On the day after the battle, General George Brinton McClellan, who had just distinguished himself by a brilliant campaign in West Virginia, was appointed to command the *Army of the Potomac*, as the forces around the National capital were named.

Very soon the National army was assuming formidable strength through the enlistment of fresh volunteers; and in September the Confederates, whose flag for a long time had flaunted in sight of the National capital, were gradually pushed back from Munson's Hill, on the Virginia side of the Potomac, until the National troops occupied the positions they had held before the battle of Bull Run. In this department, as all the

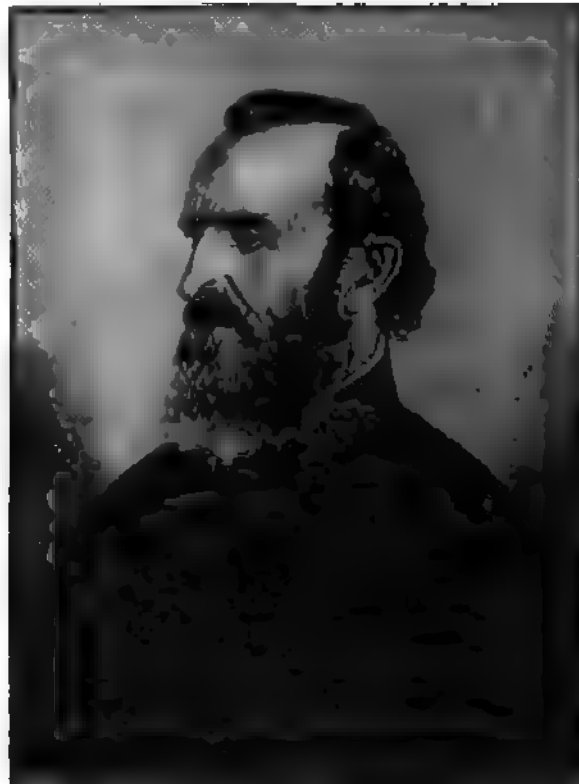


P. G. T. BEAUREGARD.

other military departments during the remainder of the year, there was much skirmishing between the outposts of the two armies; and almost every day there was somewhere on the extended line of operations one or more encounters resulting in considerable loss—a feature which characterized the war during its whole continuance. Only the more important conflicts can be mentioned in this volume.

driven back. Colonel Geary crossed into Virginia and defeated the Confederates near Harper's Ferry, October 16.

Finally, on October 21, 1861, Stone sent two thousand men under Colonel Edward Dickinson Baker, late a United States Senator from Oregon, across the Potomac to attack the Confederates at Leesburg, Virginia, but this force had no sooner crossed the river than they were overpowered and



STONEWALL JACKSON.

On the Potomac, above Washington, a National force under General Charles P. Stone was stationed at Poolesville, Maryland, near Point of Rocks and the mouth of the Monocacy. National troops under General William F. Smith defeated the Confederates under General J. E. B. Stuart, near Lewinsville, Virginia, September 12, 1861. Confederate troops crossed the Potomac into Maryland, but were repulsed by National troops under Colonel John W. Geary, near Darnestown, Maryland, September 15, and

utterly defeated and routed by the Confederates under General Evans, at Ball's Bluff, on the Virginia side of the Potomac, on the same day, October 21, 1861. As the Union troops did not have sufficient means to recross the river they lost half their number; the gallant Colonel Baker, the commander of the expedition, being among the killed, and his death being sincerely lamented. The Confederate loss was less than a third of that of the Union troops.

For two months after the battle of Ball's Bluff the public was daily informed that "All is quiet on the Potomac!" The National troops under General Edward O. C. Ord routed the Confederates under General J. E. B. Stuart at Drainsville, Virginia, about half way between Leesburg and Washington, December 20, 1861, Ord having moved in that direction both to obtain forage for his horses and to press back the Confederates.

The people of West Virginia had from the beginning of the Civil War been opposed to secession and they persisted in refusing to place themselves under the rule of the Confederate government and the secession State government of Virginia. Representatives from about forty of the western counties of Virginia met in a convention at Wheeling on June 11, 1861, and on the 17th they declared West Virginia independent of the rest of the State and elected Francis H. Pierpont for their Governor, at the same time taking steps to bring about the admission of West Virginia into the Union as a separate State.

The soil of West Virginia was early stained by the blood of civil war. Colonel Benjamin Franklin Kelley occupied Grafton May 30, 1861, the Confederates having evacuated the town on his approach. Four days afterward, June 3, 1861, Colonel Kelley routed almost a thousand Confederates at Philippi, the first regular battle of the Civil War. Eight days later, June 11, 1861, Colonel Lewis Wallace, with a few Indiana troops, dispersed five hundred Confederates at Romney. Late in June General George Brinton McClellan took command of the National forces in West Virginia and at once planned a vigorous campaign.

On July 11, 1861, Colonel William Stark Rosecrans, at the head of a part of McClellan's troops, defeated and routed three thousand Confederates under Colonel Pegram at Rich Mountain, near Beverly, after a spirited action. McClellan directed a hot pursuit, and the fleeing Confederates were overtaken and defeated at Carrick's Ford two days later, July 13, 1861, their general,

Robert S. Garnett, being killed. The Union troops under General Jacob D. Cox drove the Confederates under ex-Governor Henry A. Wise out of the Kanawha Valley. In this short campaign, under General McClellan's direction, the Union forces drove ten thousand Confederates from their intrenchments, killed two hundred and fifty of them, took a thousand prisoners and a large quantity of spoils, and left the West Virginians free to organize for the Union. McClellan was soon succeeded in command in West Virginia by General William S. Rosecrans.

The Confederates of Virginia, being resolved to compel the Union people of West Virginia to submit to the authority of the secession State government of Virginia and that of the Confederate government, sent large bodies of troops into that region under the command of Robert Edmund Lee, late a colonel in the United States army, Henry A. Wise, ex-Governor of Virginia, and John B. Floyd, ex-Secretary of War. Floyd was defeated by the National troops under General Rosecrans at Carnifax Ferry, on the Gauley river, September 10, 1861, and fled during the night across the Gauley river, leaving his camp equipage, baggage and a quantity of small arms to the victorious Unionists. General Lee, who had recently been appointed to the chief command of the Confederate forces in West Virginia, was repulsed in his attack upon the National troops under General Joseph J. Reynolds at Cheat Mountain, about the middle of September, after which he joined with Floyd and Wise in the Kanawha Valley, their united forces amounting to twenty thousand men. Early in October, Reynolds defeated a Confederate detachment on Greenbrier river, and late in the same month General Benjamin F. Kelley routed a Confederate force near Romney. Near the close of 1861 the Confederate troops retired from West Virginia, and Floyd was transferred to Tennessee.

In the meantime the war raged violently in Missouri, between the adherents of the Union and the supporters of the Southern Confederacy. The Governor of that State,

Claiborne F. Jackson, was resolved to take the State of the Union, but the majority of the people of the State were with the Union. For the purpose of carrying out his design, Governor Jackson established camps of instruction in different parts of the State. Camp Jackson at St. Louis had twelve hundred men armed by the Confederate government. On May 10, 1861, Captain Nathaniel Lyon, with a body of home-guards, suddenly surrounded Camp Jackson and took the whole force prisoners. A mob which followed Lyon and made a hostile demonstration against his men was fired upon, and many were killed and wounded. Governor Jackson then sought to carry out his designs from Jefferson City, the capital of Missouri. He issued a proclamation calling out the State militia to repel National invasion, and a Confederate force was marching into the State from Arkansas to his assistance.

The vigilance and promptitude of Lyon foiled Jackson's purpose. Lyon at once started for Jefferson City with three thousand troops. Jackson fled to Booneville, where he was defeated and put to flight by the pursuing Lyon, June 18, 1861. Jackson then fled to the southwestern part of the State, where his adherents were gathering in large numbers. Lyon sent Colonel Franz Sigel with fifteen hundred Unionists to oppose Jackson in that quarter. After gaining some advantages Sigel encountered a largely superior force under Jackson at Carthage, July 5, 1861, and after a gallant fight he retreated and rejoined Lyon, who was marching to his assistance. Late in July, General John Charles Fremont assumed the chief command of the Union forces in Missouri, and set about the organization of a fleet of gunboats and mortar boats on the Mississippi and its tributaries. Governor Jackson's friends were forming marauding parties throughout the State. General John Pope, with Union troops, soon restored order in Northern Missouri.

In the meantime General Lyon had marched into Southwestern Missouri to oppose Governor Jackson and the Confederate invaders from Arkansas under Generals

Stirling Price and Ben McCullough. On August 2, 1861, Lyon defeated the Confederates under Ben McCullough, the famous Texas Ranger, at Dug Spring, near the border of Arkansas. On the 10th of the same month, August, 1861, Lyon, at the head of only five thousand National troops, fought with twenty thousand Confederates, under Price and McCullough, the battle of Wilson's Creek, near Springfield, Missouri. The attack was made by Lyon, although he was outnumbered four to one. After the battle had raged for some time, Lyon ordered a bayonet charge. He placed himself at the head of a body of men who had just lost their leader, and exclaimed: "Come on, brave men! I will lead you." The charge was made, and the Confederates were routed, but Lyon was killed while gallantly fighting at the head of his troops. The slaughter on both sides was terrific. After the Confederates had been repeatedly driven from the field, the National troops were obliged to fall back, thus leaving Southwestern Missouri open to the Confederates. The battle of Wilson's Creek was, next to the first battle of Bull Run, the greatest battle of the year 1861.

On the last day of August, Fremont proclaimed martial law in Missouri, and declared the slaves of Disunionists to be free—a declaration which President Lincoln modified so as to restrict its operation to slaves actually assisting the Confederate army.

One of the most memorable events of the war in Missouri in 1861 was the capture of Lexington, on the Missouri river, by the Confederates under Price, after a gallant defense by Colonel James A. Mulligan, who, with little more than twenty-five hundred Union troops behind intrenchments, held out four days against an enemy ten times as numerous, and only surrendered after he had exhausted his ammunition, and the supply of water had been cut off for three days from the brave garrison, who had only vinegar to drink. Lexington was retaken by a National cavalry force under Major White on October 16, 1861.

In October, 1861, General Fremont, with an army of thirty thousand men, marched

toward Springfield, in pursuit of the Confederates. One of the most brilliant exploits of the war was a dashing charge of 160 cavalymen of Fremont's body-guard, under Major Zagonyi, a Hungarian refugee, against two thousand Confederates, near Springfield, October 21, 1861, the day of the battle of Ball's Bluff, on the Potomac. Notwithstanding the immense superiority of the Confederates drawn up to receive Fremont's body-guard, Major Zagonyi sounded the charge, and his men rushed on their foes in the midst of a deadly fire, with irrepressible enthusiasm, shouting: "Fremont and the Union!" The Confederates were routed, and fled in all directions. Early in November, 1861, Fremont was superseded in his command by General David Hunter, who was succeeded during the same month by General Henry Wager Halleck. Before the close of 1861 the Confederates were in full retreat toward Arkansas. Confederate detachments were defeated by Union troops in various parts of Missouri, and Jeff. Thompson's guerrilla band was defeated and dispersed in October by Missouri, Illinois and Indiana troops.

In the meantime the Confederates under General Cheatham had established a fortified camp at Belmont, in Southeastern Missouri, on the Mississippi river, opposite Columbus, Kentucky. Three thousand National troops under General Ulysses Simpson Grant were transported from Cairo, Illinois, to the Missouri shore of the Mississippi, and attacked the Confederates at Belmont, November 7, 1861, driving them from their intrenched camp and destroying their camp equipage, but when the Confederates received reinforcements from Columbus, the Union troops withdrew to their transports, and returned to Cairo, under the protection of their gun-boats.

In the Territory of New Mexico, Major Isaac Lynde surrendered Fort Fillmore, with its garrison of about seven hundred men, to the Confederates, thus following the example of General Twiggs in Texas early in the year. The Confederate leaders had enlisted the Indians on the Southwestern frontier in their cause.

The majority of the people of Kentucky were on the side of the Union, but the secessionists within her borders, among whom was Governor Beriah Magoffin, succeeded in keeping the State neutral for a time. Like the other border Slave States—Maryland and Missouri—Kentucky had soldiers in both the National and Confederate armies. Prominent Kentuckians in the Confederate army were ex-Vice-President John C. Breckinridge, Simon Bolivar Buckner and George B. Crittenden, son of the Unionist United States Senator, John J. Crittenden. Among eminent Kentuckians in the Union army were Generals Nelson, Rousseau and Thomas L. Crittenden, also a son of John J. Crittenden. The National troops in Kentucky were at first commanded by General (formerly Major) Robert Anderson, the hero of Fort Sumter, himself a Kentuckian. He was obliged to retire on account of ill-health, and General William Tecumseh Sherman was appointed to his place. Sherman was soon succeeded by General Don Carlos Buell.

In the meantime Confederate troops had invaded Kentucky from Tennessee. Thus General Felix K. Zollicoffer, formerly a member of the National Congress, entered Eastern Kentucky by way of Cumberland Gap, and attacked the National troops under General Schoepf at Camp Wildcat, October 21, 1861—the day of the battle of Ball's Bluff, on the Potomac—but was repulsed with heavy loss. Early in November a National force under General William Nelson, a Kentuckian, attacked and routed the Confederates at Piketon, thus frustrating their designs on Eastern Kentucky. In Central Kentucky there was a large Confederate army commanded by General Simon Bolivar Buckner, a Kentuckian. In Western Kentucky, the Confederates, under General Leonidas Polk, a bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, occupied Hickman and Columbus, in September; and General Grant, with National troops from the camp at Cairo, Illinois, took possession of Paducah. Kentucky then openly declared for the Union.

Though Tennessee had seceded from the Union and joined the Southern Confederacy,



GENERAL WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN.

the people of East Tennessee were ardently for the Union, and the harsh measures of the Confederate authorities could not shake the attachment of these people to the National cause. Confederate troops occupied this region, destroyed crops and other property, and arrested many of the Union sympathizers. Four prominent men of Tennessee were for the Union from the beginning—Andrew Johnson, United States Senator; William G. Brownlow, editor of the *Knoxville Whig*; Judge Horace Maynard and Emerson Etheridge.

The Confederates had obtained control of the Mississippi river, from Columbus, Kentucky, to its mouth, by seizing the forts and erecting batteries at commanding points. In September, 1861, a National force was landed on Ship Island, along the Gulf coast of Mississippi. In October a Confederate iron-clad ram, attended by gunboats and fire-ships, came down from New Orleans one night to destroy the National blockading vessels at the mouth of the Mississippi; but the Confederate vessels, under Captain Hollins, formerly of the United States navy, were beaten off by the Union ships.

On the Gulf coast of Western Florida, in October, 1861, the Confederates surprised, plundered and destroyed a Union camp on Santa Rosa Island, but with the aid of a part of the garrison of Fort Pickens they were driven off with much loss. Late in November, the Union garrison in Fort Pickens open fire upon Fort McRae and other forts and batteries, and the navy-yard, then in the possession of the Confederates. Fort Pickens continued the bombardment the next day, silencing Fort McRae, seriously damaging the navy-yard and almost destroying the neighboring village of Warrington.

Late in the summer and during the fall of 1861 the National army and navy gained important advantages on the Atlantic coast of the Southern States. On August 26, 1861, Forts Clarke and Hatteras, on Hatteras Inlet, on the coast of North Carolina, were captured with their garrisons and munitions of war by a National land and naval expe-

dition under General Benjamin Franklin Butler and Commodore Silas H. Stringham. This victory gave the National forces a permanent foothold in North Carolina. Union citizens held two conventions, October 12 and November 18, and declared their independence of the Confederate government of North Carolina, and soon elected a member of the National Congress, November 27, but were reduced to submission by the Confederate authorities.

On the 7th of November, 1861—the day of Grant's defeat at Belmont, Missouri—Forts Walker and Beauregard, at Port Royal Entrance, on the coast of South Carolina, below Charleston, were captured by a National naval and military expedition under Commodore Samuel F. Dupont and General Thomas W. Sherman. The town of Beaufort thus fell into the possession of the National forces. A few days later Commodore Dupont took possession of Tybee Island, at the mouth of the Savannah river. The capture of Port Royal gave the National forces possession of the Sea Islands of South Carolina, so celebrated for the production of fine cotton.

On the 1st of November, 1861, General McClellan was made commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, General Winfield Scott having resigned that post in October, on account of his extreme age and infirmities. Only the most important military events of 1861 have been related.

The National navy, which at the beginning of the war consisted of but twelve vessels available for service at home, had become sufficiently powerful to guard the entire Gulf and Atlantic coasts of the seceded States, three thousand miles in length, and to render rather efficient aid toward restoring the authority of the National government. Nevertheless vessels loaded with valuable cargoes frequently eluded the vigilance of the blockade and ran into Confederate ports. Several Confederate vessels got to sea, and as privateers did great injury to the commerce of the United States and found protection in foreign ports. The first of these privateers was the schooner *Savan-*

nah, which escaped from Charleston, South Carolina, June 2, and which was captured in a few days after she had taken one prize. Another from the same port was the *Petrel*, which was sunk by a broadside from the United States frigate *St. Lawrence*. The steamer *Sumter*, which escaped from New Orleans, on June 30, 1861, captured and burned American merchantmen, but early in 1862 she was closely blockaded in the Bay

same ticket with ex-President Martin Van Buren, was United States minister to England. William Lewis Dayton, of New Jersey, the Republican candidate for Vice-President on the same ticket with Fremont in 1856, was the United States minister to France.

The Confederate government had appointed James M. Mason, of Virginia, its commissioner to England, and John Slidell,



GENERAL GEORGE BRINTON MCCLELLAN.

of Gibraltar by the National gunboat *Tuscarora*, and was sold in port.

The relations of the National government with England and France were not pleasant, as both of these powers, as well as Spain, had recognized the Confederates as belligerents, in the beginning of the contest. Russia was the only European power that sympathized with the National government. Charles Francis Adams, of Massachusetts, son of John Quincy Adams, and Free Soil candidate for Vice-President in 1848, on the

of Louisiana, its commissioner to France. These commissioners ran the blockade and reached Havana, in Cuba, where they embarked for Europe on board the British mail steamer *Trent*, November 7, 1861. The next day the United States steamer *San Jacinto*, commanded by Captain Charles Wilkes, intercepted the *Trent* in the Bahama Channel, took the two Confederate commissioners from her and brought them as prisoners to the United States. This exasperated Great Britain, and there was dan-



JUDSON HARMON,
Attorney General.



DANIEL S. LAMONT,
Secretary War.



HILARY A. HERBERT
Secretary Navy.



JOHN G. CARLISLE,
Secretary Treasury



ADLAI STEVENSON
Vice-President.



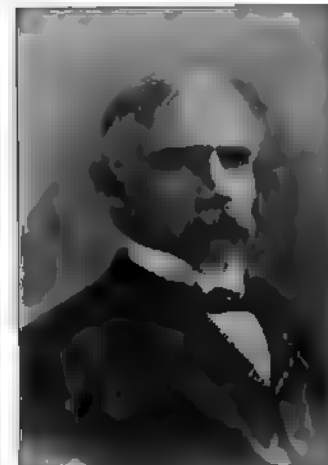
RICHARD OLNEY,
Secretary State.



J. STERLING MORTON,
Secretary Agriculture

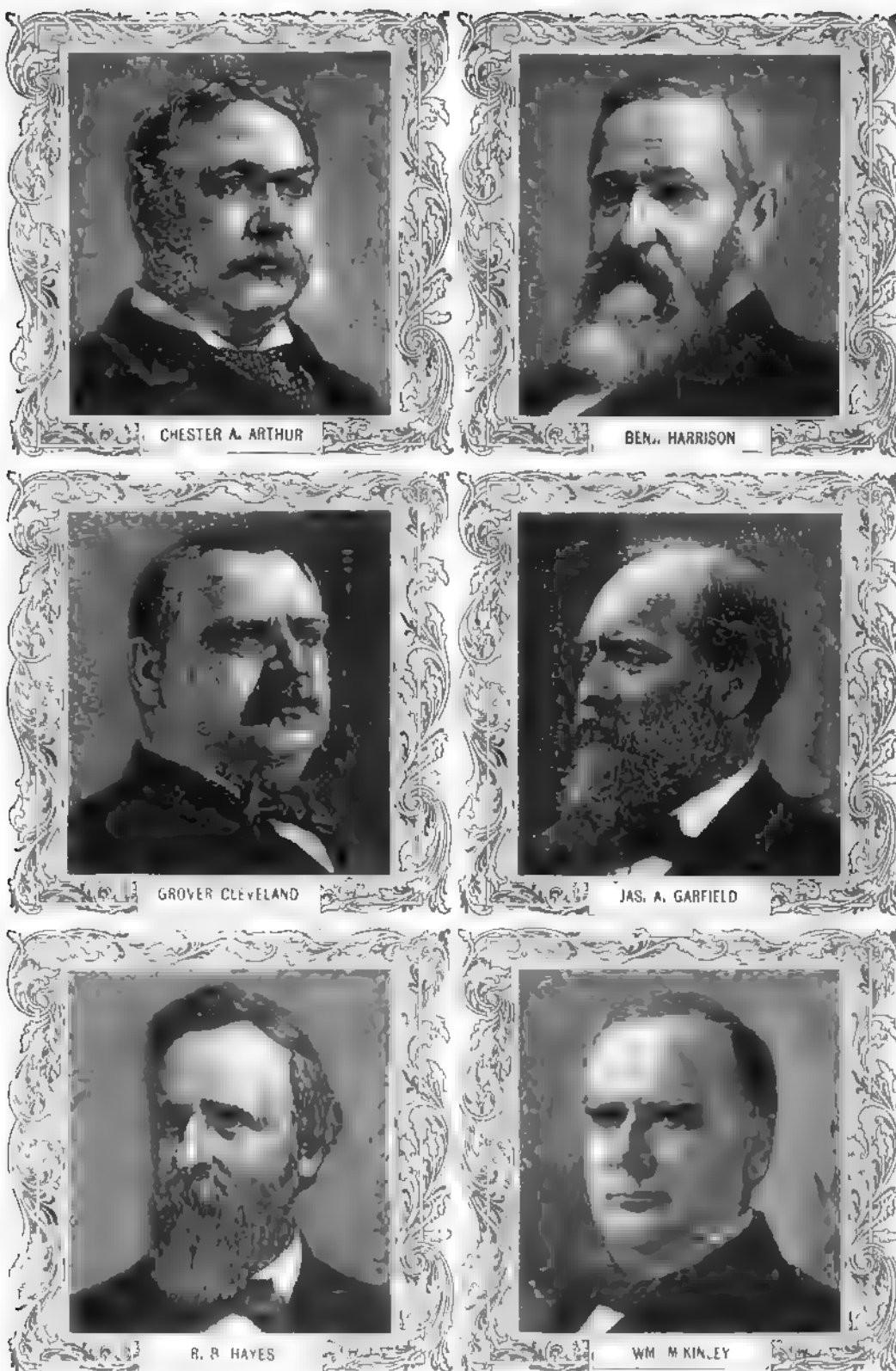


HOKÉ SMITH,
Secretary Interior.



WILLIAM L. WILSON,
Postmaster General.

CLEVELAND'S CABINET.



THE LATEST PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

ger of war between that country and the United States, but this peril was averted by the prudent diplomacy of Mr. Seward, Secretary of State in President Lincoln's Cabinet, and the dispute was settled when the United States government disavowed the act of Captain Wilkes and allowed the Confederate commissioners, Mason and Slidell, to go to England and France. But neither Great Britain nor France would recognize the Confederate commissioners in their official capacity.

England, under the Ministry of Lord Palmerston, had declared her neutrality at the beginning of the struggle, and steadily refused to recognize the independence of the Confederate States; and she gave as her reason for recognizing the belligerency of the Confederates that the United States government practically did the same by exchanging prisoners with them and by treating them as belligerents in every other respect. Among English statesmen, John Bright was a consistent friend of the Union during the Civil War. As a member of Lord Palmerston's Cabinet he exerted all his vast influence to prevent a recognition of Southern independence. Queen Victoria and her husband, Prince Albert, were also friends of the Union. Mr. Disraeli remarked that "the triumph of the Confederate States would be a misfortune to the cause of civilization." Mr. Gladstone, however, remarked: "In my opinion Jefferson Davis has founded a nation." Lord John Russell and Lord Derby also sympathized with the Confederates.

Early in 1862 Simon Cameron, of Pennsylvania, was succeeded as Secretary of War by Edwin M. Stanton, War Democrat, from the same State. The Confederate government, at first only provisional, was organized permanently February 22, 1862, under a constitution adopted in 1861 and modeled after that of the United States; the legislative power being vested in a Congress composed of a Senate and House of Representatives, and the executive power in a President and Vice-President to serve for a term of six years. Under this constitution Jefferson

Davis and Alexander H. Stephens were continued as President and Vice-President respectively.

At the beginning of 1862 the National armies in the field numbered more than half a million men and confronted the Confederate forces, numbering 350,000 men, on a line extending from the Potomac to Kansas. The National armies were constantly recruited under repeated calls of the President for volunteers. Almost two hundred thousand Union troops, chiefly in the vicinity of Washington, were under the immediate command of General McClellan. General Don Carlos Buell had about one hundred thousand in Central and Eastern Kentucky. General Ulysses Simpson Grant had about thirty thousand in Western Kentucky and at Cairo, Illinois. General Henry W. Halleck had about seventy thousand in Missouri. The remaining one hundred thousand were scattered at various places as follows: In South Carolina, under General Thomas W. Sherman; at Fortress Monroe, Virginia, under General John Ellis Wool; on the Lower Potomac, under General Joseph Hooker; on the Upper Potomac, under General Benjamin Franklin Kelley; in West Virginia, under General William Stark Rosecrans, and in garrisons organizing for expeditions on the Atlantic coast and on the Western frontier. The Confederates held nearly all Virginia, part of West Virginia, half of Kentucky, part of Missouri, and the rest of the Southern States, except Fort Pickens, the Tortugas, Key West, Hatteras Inlet, and Port Royal. The fiercest of the Confederate troops were the Louisiana Tigers and the Texas Rangers.

The first military operations in 1862 opened in Kentucky and after a series of brilliant Union victories the Confederates were driven from that State. At the beginning of the year the Confederates occupied Paintville and held strong positions on a line of defense extending from Mill Spring, through Bowling Green, to Columbus. On January 7 a few thousand Union troops under General James A. Garfield defeated the Confederates under Humphrey Marshall

at Prestonburg, thus driving the Confederates from Paintville and Eastern Kentucky. On January 19, 1862, an advance division of General Buell's army, under General George H. Thomas, defeated a Confederate force under General George B. Crittenden at Mill Spring, near Somerset, Kentucky, the Confederate General Felix K. Zollicoffer being among the killed.

On the 6th of February, 1862, Fort Henry, on the Tennessee River, in Tennessee, was captured by a National fleet of gunboats under Commodore Andrew Hull Foote. The commander of the garrison, Lloyd Tilghman, his staff, and about sixty men were made prisoners, but the greater part of the garrison fled to Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland River, in the same State, twelve miles distant. On February 16, 1862, ten days after the fall of Fort Henry, Fort Donelson, after an assault and bombardment of three days, was surrendered with its garrison of thirteen thousand Confederate troops by its commander, General Simon Bolivar Buckner, to General Grant, who commanded the National army which had invested and besieged the fortress. The night before the surrender five thousand Confederate troops under Generals Gideon J. Pillow and John B. Floyd made their escape. In reply to Buckner's note proposing an armistice to agree upon terms of surrender, Grant said: "No terms other than an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." By this reply U. S. Grant received the popular sobriquet of "Unconditional Surrender Grant."

The Confederates evacuated Bowling Green, Kentucky, during the siege of Fort Donelson, and Columbus, in the western part of the same State, soon afterwards. After the fall of Fort Henry, National gunboats sailed up the Tennessee River to Florence, Alabama, seizing or destroying steamers and other property. A few days after the capture of Fort Donelson a Union detachment under General Nelson took possession of Nashville, Tennessee's capital. Soon afterward President Lincoln appointed Andrew John-

son, United States Senator from Tennessee, who was the only Southern Senator who remained a friend of the Union, to the office of Military Governor of that State.

Grant's victorious army, almost forty thousand strong, was conveyed on board steamers upon the Tennessee river to Pittsburg Landing, in Tennessee, near the Mississippi State line. On April 6, 1862, Grant's army was attacked by over forty thousand Confederates under Generals Beauregard and Albert Sydney Johnston, while encamped at Shiloh Church, near Pittsburg Landing. The Confederates were victorious on that day, and drove Grant's troops back to the river with great slaughter, capturing many prisoners and much war material; and the Union army was only saved by the National gunboats, with whose assistance the victorious Confederates were held at bay. During the night Grant was reinforced by a strong force under General Buell from Nashville, and the next day, April 7, 1862, the battle was renewed, and after a sanguinary struggle the Confederates were defeated and compelled to flee to Corinth, in Northeastern Mississippi. The Union loss was nearly fourteen thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners, and the Confederate loss was about the same. General William H. L. Wallace, of the Union army, and the General Albert Sydney Johnston, the Confederate commander-in-chief in the West, were killed. Johnston's death was greatly lamented throughout the South. This important engagement is known as the *battle of Shiloh*. In the meantime General Ormsby McKnight Mitchel marched southward from Nashville with a detachment of Buell's army, occupied Huntsville, Alabama, April 11, 1862, and took possession of many miles of the Memphis and Charleston Railroad.

Soon after the battle of Shiloh, General Halleck took command of Grant's army, and, after receiving reinforcements which increased this army to more than a hundred thousand men, he marched against the Confederates, who were strongly intrenched at Corinth, Mississippi. On May 29, 1862, after having suffered a heavy bombardment,

Corinth was evacuated by the Confederates, and was taken possession of by General Halleck's army the next day (May 30, 1862). In July, General Halleck was called to Washington as commander-in-chief of the National armies, leaving his army at Corinth under the command of General Grant.

In September, 1862, the Confederates under Generals Van Dorn and Price made a vigorous effort to retake Corinth, but were defeated by a part of Grant's army under General Rosecrans at Iuka, Mississippi, on September 19. On October 3 and 4 Van Dorn and Price attacked Rosecrans in the strong defenses of Corinth, but were defeated and routed with terrible slaughter, Rosecrans having a force only half as large. The Confederates were pursued and defeated on October 5, 1862, in the battle of the Hatchie, by the National troops under Generals Ord and Hurlburt. In the battles of Iuka, Corinth and the Hatchie the Confederates lost more than ten thousand men, while the Union loss was only about three thousand.

In the spring of 1862 the Confederate posts on the Mississippi river successfully fell into the possession of the National army and navy. The fall of Forts Henry and Donelson, and the approach of National gunboats, caused the Confederates to evacuate Columbus and Hickman, Kentucky, and to fortify Island No. 10, in the Mississippi, and New Madrid, Missouri. The garrisons were aided by the Confederate gunboats under Captain Hollins. After one day's bombardment by Ohio and Illinois troops under General Pope, the Confederate garrison evacuated New Madrid on the night of March 13, 1862, and fled across the Mississippi. Two days later Commodore Foote approached Island No. 10 from the north with his flotilla, and bombarded the island for three weeks; and when General Pope cut off the retreat of the Confederate garrison by crossing the Mississippi from the Missouri to the Tennessee side, Island No. 10 was surrendered to Commodore Foote, on the very day of Grant's victory at Shiloh,

April 7, 1862. Most of the garrison attempted to escape, but were pursued and captured the next day by General Pope's army. By this important victory the Union forces obtained five thousand prisoners, several steamboats, and a vast quantity of military stores. The spoils of war were the greatest won by the Unionists in any conflict of the war thus far.

After the capture of Island No. 10 General Pope hastened with most of his troops to assist General Halleck in the siege of Corinth. Commodore Foote's flotilla immediately sailed down the Mississippi and besieged Fort Pillow, on the Tennessee side of the river. Fort Pillow was garrisoned by three thousand Confederate troops under Jeff Thompson, assisted by a Confederate flotilla under Captain Hollins. Foote's flotilla repulsed both Hollins' flotilla and the garrison, May 10, 1862, and was afterward reinforced by a ram squadron under Charles Ellet, jr. On the night of June 4 Forts Pillow and Randolph were both evacuated by their Confederate garrisons, in consequence of the evacuation of Corinth. Commodore Foote had been obliged to leave the service on account of a wound which he had received at Fort Donelson, and from the effects of which he died at the Astor House, in New York City, in June, 1863. The command of his flotilla devolved on Commodore Charles H. Davis, who captured Memphis, Tennessee, June 6, 1862, after a severe naval engagement, in which all but two gunboats of the Confederate flotilla defending the city were either captured or destroyed. The Confederate garrison under Jeff Thompson evacuated the city and fled, and National troops under General Lewis Wallace occupied the city.

In the meantime an expedition had been organized in the Southwest for the capture of New Orleans. This expedition consisted of a gunboat and mortar fleet, under Commodores David G. Farragut and David D. Porter, and an army under General Butler. After bombarding Forts Jackson and St. Philip, on opposite sides of the Mississippi river, seventy-five miles below New Orleans,

for six days, Farragut and Porter ran by the forts, which poured a continuous stream of shot and shell upon the passing vessels, and a terrific naval engagement ensued, which ended in the destruction of the Confederate squadron of rams, gunboats and floating batteries, commanded by Captain Hollins, April 24, 1862. The landing of some of Butler's troops in the rear of Fort St. Philip and a mutiny of the garrison of Fort Jack-

bering ten thousand men, under General Mansfield Lovell, formerly a New York politician, hastily evacuated the city and fled. General Butler with fourteen thousand National troops, which had rendezvoused on Ship Island, in the Gulf of Mexico, south of Mississippi, took possession of the city, May 1. The capture of New Orleans was the severest blow thus far inflicted upon the Confederates.



ADMIRAL DAVID G. FARRAGUT.

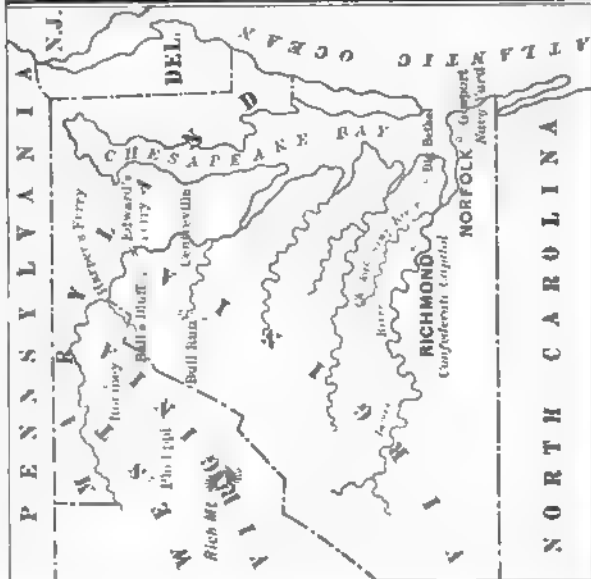
son caused the surrender of both forts to Commodore Porter in a few days.

In the meantime Farragut had passed up the river with his fleet and appeared before New Orleans, April 25, 1862. A terrible panic seized the city. Many citizens fled, and four millions of specie and much private property were carried away. Women in the streets cried: "Burn the city!" Ships, steamboats, storehouses, and a vast amount of cotton and other property were burned at the levees. The Confederate garrison, num-

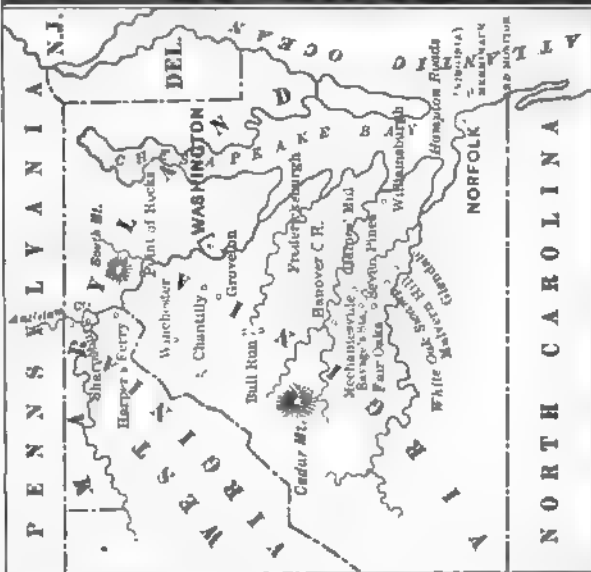
Butler's conduct in New Orleans aroused the most intense hatred against him in the South, and he was called "Beast Butler." Mayor John T. Monroe and the leading politicians were disposed to be defiant at first. When a demand was made for the surrender of the city and the lowering of the Confederate flag from the custom house and mint, it was refused, and after the National flag was raised over the mint by the troops it was torn down by a mob and carried through the streets in derision. A gambler

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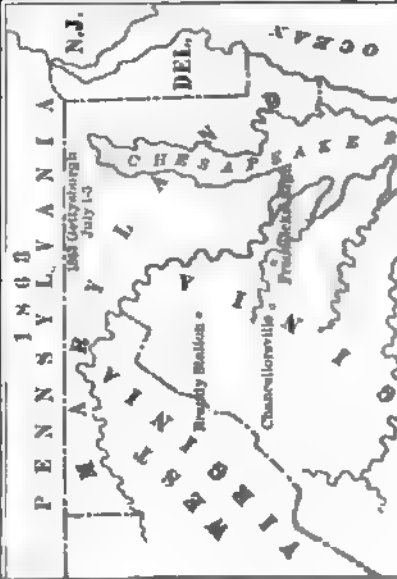
1861



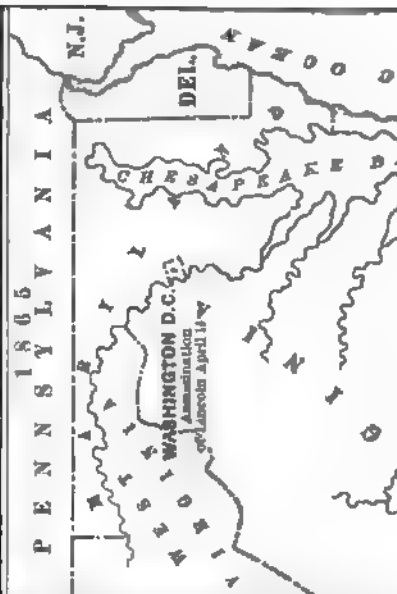
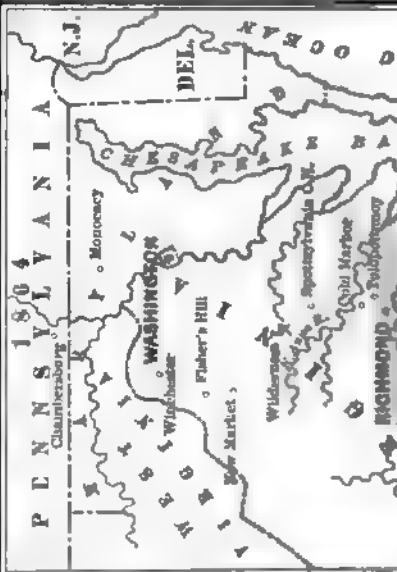
1862



SECEDED STATES		
ORDER OF SECESSION	NAME OF STATE	DATE OF SECESSION
1	South Carolina	Dec. 20, 1860
2	Mississippi	Jan. 9, 1862
3	Florida	" 10, "
4	Alabama	" 11, "
5	Georgia	" 19, "
6	Louisiana	" 26, "
7	Texas	Feb. 1, "
8	Virginia	Apr. 17, "
9	Arkansas	May 6, "
10	Tennessee	" 6, "
11	North Carolina	" 20, "



1864



named Mumford, who led this mob, and afterward incited mob violence, was arrested, tried and convicted of treason by court-martial, and hanged. Several women having shown disrespect to Butler's officers, Butler issued an order threatening to treat all women guilty of similar offenses in the future as "women of the town." This order aroused great indignation in the South, and Jefferson Davis issued a proclamation of outlawry against Butler.

After the fall of New Orleans, Farragut's gunboat fleet sailed up the Mississippi and took Baton Rouge, the capital of Louisiana, May 7, 1862, and Natchez, Mississippi, May 12. Farragut proceeded up the river and attacked Vicksburg, June 26, ran past the Confederate batteries there and joined the Union fleet above. The Confederate ram *Arkansas* sailed from out of the Yazoo river, inflicted considerable damage upon the Union fleet and took refuge under the guns of Vicksburg. Finding Vicksburg too strong to take without the coöperation of an army, Farragut returned to New Orleans.

On the 5th of August, 1862, the Confederates under General John C. Breckinridge, ex-Vice-President of the United States, attacked a small National force under General Thomas Williams at Baton Rouge. The National troops were victorious, but the gallant General Williams was killed in the moment of triumph. The Confederate ram *Arkansas* came down to take part in the conflict, but her engines gave out and her crew set her on fire and abandoned her. Soon afterward the Union troops evacuated Baton Rouge. Commodore Porter sailed up the Mississippi and had a fight with the Confederate batteries at Port Hudson, September 7. Late in October, 1862, General Godfrey Weitzel led an expedition into the Lafourche district of Louisiana, to the southwest of New Orleans, defeated the Confederates near Labadieville, October 27, and took possession of the district.

The Mississippi river was open from the north as far south as Vicksburg, Mississippi; and south of Vicksburg it had already been opened by the capture of New Orleans and

Natchez. In the latter part of December, 1862, General William Tecumseh Sherman attacked the Confederate works at Vicksburg, but was repulsed after severe fighting. Grant was marching down from the north to coöperate with Sherman, but was obliged to fall back on account of the disgraceful surrender of the Union garrison at Holly Springs, left there to protect his supplies.

West of the Mississippi the war raged in Arkansas and Missouri early and late in the year 1862. About the middle of February the National army under General Samuel R. Curtis drove the Confederate army under General Stirling Price, from Southwestern Missouri, across the border into Northwestern Arkansas. Price was soon reinforced by Earl Van Dorn, Ben McCullough and McIntosh, and by Albert Pike with a force of Indians from Indian Territory; and the united Confederate forces, twenty thousand strong, assumed the offensive against Curtis, whose army did not number much over ten thousand men. Curtis selected a strong position on Pea Ridge, where a severe battle of three days was fought, March 6, 7 and 8, 1862. The Confederates began the battle by attacking General Franz Sigel's six hundred men, but were repulsed by Sigel's artillery, and the battle ended in a disastrous Confederate defeat. The victorious Union army lost over thirteen hundred men. The Confederate loss was much greater, and among their killed were Generals McCullough and McIntosh. After the battle of Pea Ridge, General Curtis led his army to Helena, on the Mississippi river.

During the spring and summer of 1862 there were about a hundred battles and skirmishes in Missouri, and Confederate invaders from Arkansas were driven back. General John McAllister Schofield, who commanded twenty thousand Union troops scattered over Missouri, defeated the guerrilla bands late in the summer of 1862. Generals Schofield and J. G. Blunt, with ten thousand Union troops, marched against the Confederates under General T. C. Hindman, in Northwestern Arkansas, routed a Confederate force at Maysville, October 22,

and drove it into Indian Territory. General Francis J. Herron routed another Confederate detachment, October 28, and drove it to the mountains. Hindman, who was formerly a member of the National Congress from Arkansas, now raised a Confederate army of twenty thousand men to recover his State. His advance was routed by Blunt, on the Ozark mountains, November 26, and driven toward Van Buren. Hindman, with eleven thousand men, was overwhelmingly defeated by Blunt and Herron at Prairie Grove, on Illinois Creek, near Fayetteville, Arkansas, December 7, 1862. The battles of Pea Ridge and Prairie Grove decided the fate of Arkansas and Missouri, though these States were long harassed by guerrilla warfare.

Early in 1862 the war extended as far west as the Territory of New Mexico. A Confederate force, consisting of twenty-three hundred Texas Rangers, under Major H. H. Sibley, of Louisiana, invaded New Mexico, defeated the National troops under General Edward R. S. Canby, in the battle of Valverde, near Fort Craig, February 21, 1862, and soon afterward captured Santa Fé, the capital of the Territory, but they were driven out of the Territory in April.

On the coast of the Gulf of Mexico few events occurred during 1862. The Confederates evacuated Pensacola, Florida, May 9, after setting fire to the navy-yard and all public and private property within their reach. Commander Renshaw, with four steamers, took Galveston, Texas, in October, but the Confederates retook the city, January 1, 1863.

On the Atlantic coast, during the earlier part of 1862, the National army and navy conquered from Virginia to Florida. A National land and naval expedition, under General Ambrose E. Burnside and Commodore Louis M. Goldsborough, sailed from Fortress Monroe, Virginia, entered Hatteras Inlet, North Carolina, dispersed the Confederate fleet in Pamlico Sound, and captured Roanoke Island, on February 8, 1862, after a hot conflict of two days, after which the victorious Union fleet pursued and captured

or destroyed the Confederate flotilla, and the fleet and army took many settlements on the Sound. Burnside, with twelve thousand men, captured Newbern on March 14, after a severe fight. Beaufort surrendered without resistance, March 25, and Fort Macon a month later, April 25, after a severe bombardment by General Foster, and almost the whole coast of North Carolina lay at the mercy of the Union forces.

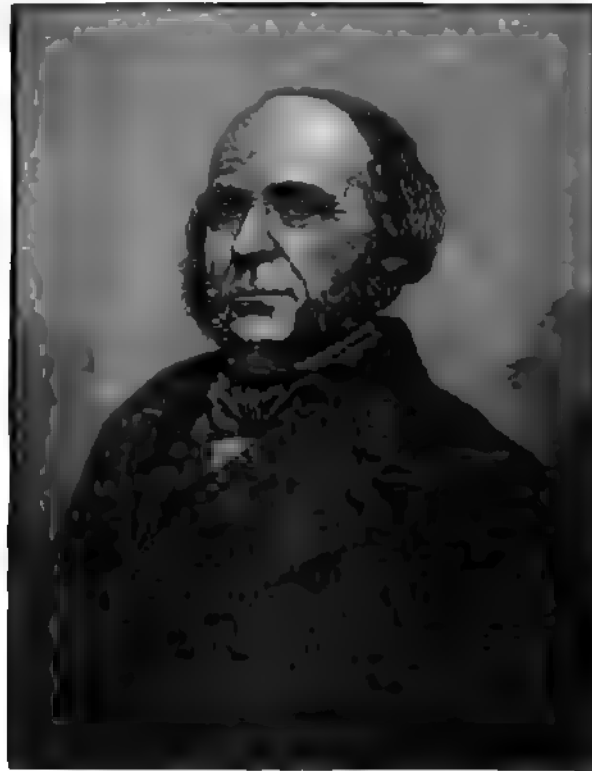
A National expedition fitted out at Port Royal, South Carolina, took Fernandina, Jacksonville and other places in Northeastern Florida, in March, 1862. On April 11, 1862, Fort Pulaski, at the mouth of the Savannah river, in Georgia, after withstanding a heavy bombardment of two days from the batteries erected on Tybee Island by Captain (afterward Major-General) Quincy Adams Gillmore, surrendered with its immense stores to General David Hunter, who had command of the National troops in that department. In May, Hunter issued a proclamation declaring South Carolina, Georgia and Florida under martial law, and also declaring the freedom of the slaves in those States. As in the case of Fremont's proclamation in Missouri, President Lincoln overruled Hunter's proclamation.

The 9th of March, 1862, was signalized a great Union naval victory at the mouth of the James river, in Virginia—the victory of the *Monitor* over the *Merrimac*—the first battle that ever occurred between iron-clad vessels. The *Merrimac* was an iron-clad ram, named *Virginia* by the Confederates, who had constructed her out of the United States frigate *Merrimac*, which had been scuttled and sunk by the Union forces when they abandoned the navy-yard at Norfolk in the spring of 1861. On March 8, 1862—the day of the National victory in the battle of Pea Ridge, Arkansas—the *Merrimac*, commanded by Franklin Buchanan, formerly of the United States navy, steamed out from Norfolk, pounced upon the National fleet in Hampton Roads, sunk the sloop-of-war *Cumberland*, and compelled the frigate *Congress* to surrender. As the *Merrimac* approached, the Union fleet fired upon her,

but their shots glanced harmless from her iron roof. The greatest consternation prevailed within the Union garrison in Fortress Monroe and in the Union fleet. The whole National fleet was in a most perilous situation, being threatened with entire destruction; but during the night a newly-invented iron-clad floating battery, called the *Monitor*, and invented by Captain John Ericsson, a Swedish American, sailed into Hampton

hands. At the close of the year the *Monitor* foundered in a storm off the coast of North Carolina and went to the bottom of the sea, most of her brave crew perishing with her.

In Virginia events of the greatest magnitude and importance occurred during 1862. Early in February General Lander expelled the Confederates from the Upper Potomac, and later in the same month General



CAPTAIN JOHN ERICSSON.

Roads, and attacked the *Merrimac* the next morning, March 9, 1862, disabled her after a severe action, and compelled her to return to Norfolk. By this victory the *Monitor* saved the whole Union fleet, but her gallant commander, Lieutenant John L. Worden, was severely injured in the eyes by the concussion of a shot which struck the pilot house.

Two months later, when the Confederates evacuated Norfolk, they destroyed the *Merrimac* to prevent her from falling into Union

Nathaniel P. Banks crossed the Potomac from Maryland into Virginia and drove the Confederates under Stonewall Jackson up the Shenandoah Valley. General Shields, who commanded the advance of Bank's army, enticed Jackson back to Winchester and attacked and defeated him near that city, with considerable loss, on March 23, 1862. Banks followed up this victory of General Shields by pursuing Jackson's defeated and shattered hosts in their retreat up the Shenandoah Valley.

The greater portion of the Army of the Potomac, under General McClellan, had for several months remained inactive on the Virginia side of the Potomac, opposite Washington, to be disciplined, armed and instructed. Early in March, 1862, McClellan advanced and on the 10th he took possession of Manassas, which the Confederates had evacuated. The next day he was relieved of the office of commander-in-chief of all the United States armies and was allowed to give his undivided attention to the Army of the Potomac. General Fremont was assigned to the command of the Union troops in West Virginia and East Tennessee; General Banks to the command of those in the Shenandoah Valley, and General McDowell to the command of those on the Rappahannock. A portion of McDowell's forces under General Auger drove the Confederates out of Fredericksburg, Virginia, April 18, 1862, and took possession of that city.

After compelling the Confederates to retreat from Manassas toward Richmond, General McClellan embarked the Army of the Potomac at Alexandria for Fortress Monroe, preparing to approach the Confederate capital by way of the peninsula formed by the York and James Rivers. On April 4, 1862, McClellan commenced his march up the peninsula from Fortress Monroe, his army numbering considerably more than a hundred thousand men. For a month he besieged the Confederates under General Magruder at Yorktown, but on May 3 the Confederates evacuated Yorktown and fled toward Richmond.

The retreating Confederates were hotly pursued and two days after the evacuation of Yorktown, May 5, 1862, they were overtaken at Williamsburg, where a terrible battle was fought, which resulted in a National victory. The Confederates resumed their retreat and were again pursued by the National forces. On May 10, 1862, five days after the battle of Williamsburg, Norfolk was evacuated by the Confederates, after they had destroyed the *Merrimac*, and the town was entered on the same day by

National troops under the command of General John Ellis Wool, a hero of the War of 1812 and the war with Mexico. Soon afterward National gunboats attempted to approach Richmond by way of the James river, but were repulsed at Fort Darling.

McClellan continued his march on Richmond. On May 29, 1862, Hanover Court House was captured by a portion of the National army, under Fitz-John Porter, after a spirited conflict. McClellan established his base of supplies at White House, on the Pamunky river, and threw the left wing of his army across the Chickahominy. This portion of his army was attacked by the Confederates near Seven Pines and Fair Oaks, May 31, where a terrible but indecisive battle was fought during that and the following day, June 1. The Union troops in this battle numbered thirty thousand and belonged to the corps of General Keyes and Heintzelman, and were attacked after they had crossed the Chickahominy, by fifty thousand Confederates under General Joseph E. Johnston, near Seven Pines. The Union troops fought bravely, but were compelled to fall back by the overpowering force of the enemy. McClellan's left seemed doomed, but the Union troops were saved from defeat by the promptitude of General Sumner, who threw General Sedgwick's division across the north side of the Chickahominy just in time to hurl back a fresh column of Confederates coming down upon the hard-pressed forces of Heintzelman and Keyes, near Fair Oaks Station. The battle closed at night, but was renewed the next day, June 1, 1862, when a Confederate division engaged a part of Sumner's line, but was repulsed, whereupon the entire Confederate army withdrew. The Union loss was more than five thousand, and the Confederate loss about eight thousand. General Joseph E. Johnston was so severely wounded that he was relieved from active duty, and General Robert E. Lee was assigned to the command of the Confederate army before Richmond.

Strenuous efforts throughout the revolted States had immensely added to the numer-

ical strength of the Confederate army, while McClellan's effective force had been considerably diminished by the necessity of keeping open his communications, by sickness, continual skirmishing, and the battles of Williamsburg, Hanover Court House, Seven Pines and Fair Oaks.

McClellan's great reliance was on being reinforced by McDowell from Fredericksburg, but the Confederate general had taken measures to prevent McDowell from reinforcing McClellan. Stonewall Jackson, who was still in the Shenandoah Valley, had been reinforced so that his army now numbered twenty thousand men, and he was ordered to attack the Union force under General Banks, then reduced to less than six thousand men, at Strasburg, after which he was to threaten Washington and force McDowell to turn his attention northward. Jackson carried out the plan assigned him with masterly skill, and his campaign may be regarded as the most brilliant and successful of the war thus far. By attempting to get into Banks's rear and cut off his retreat, and overwhelming a small Union force at Front Royal, May 23, Jackson compelled Banks to retreat in hot haste down the Shenandoah Valley. Banks marched fifty-three miles in two days, continually skirmishing with his pursuers. After a severe defeat at Winchester, May 25, Banks resumed his retreat, and crossed the Potomac into Maryland, at Williamsport, the next day, his wearied army having lost less than a thousand men and but a few wagons of an immense train.

The retreat of Bank's army caused great alarm throughout the North. Fears were entertained for the safety of Washington, and McDowell was drawn away from reinforcing McClellan. By compelling Banks to retreat across the Potomac, Jackson so skillfully maneuvered his force that he completely neutralized the three Union armies under the respective commands of Fremont, Banks and McDowell, which together amounted to more than sixty thousand men.

After giving his wearied army but a single day's rest, Jackson hastily retreated up the

Shenandoah Valley and was hotly pursued by the Union forces now concentrating against him. Fremont from the west, and Shields, then under McDowell, from the east, set out to intercept Jackson at Strasburg; but the nimble Confederate general slipped between his foes and fled up the valley, hotly pursued and harassed by superior forces. Banks joined Fremont and Shields in the pursuit. Jackson turned upon Fremont's army at Cross Keys, June 8, and held it in check while he crossed the Shenandoah river and burned the bridge. The next day, June 9, Jackson defeated Shields at Port Republic. The pursuit of Jackson was then abandoned by the Union generals, and he escaped with his prisoners and booty and joined Lee before Richmond.

Almost a month after the battle of Fair Oaks, McClellan prepared to advance upon Richmond. But on the very day on which this movement was to begin, Lee, who had already been reinforced by Stonewall Jackson from the Shenandoah Valley, attacked that portion of McClellan's army on the north side of the Chickahominy, thus beginning a series of sanguinary battles near Richmond which lasted seven days, beginning on June 25 and ending on July 1, 1862, and known as the *Seven Days' Battles*.

General Hooker led the advance against Richmond by advancing his line in front of Fair Oaks, whereupon a desperate struggle known as the battle of Oak Grove ensued, June 25. The next day, June 26, the Confederates attacked General McCall's division north of the Chickahominy, thus bringing about the battle of Mechanicsville, in which the Confederates were repulsed with heavy loss. During the night the Union troops withdrew from their position, and on the following day, June 27, occurred the battle of Gaines' Mill, where thirty-five thousand of McClellan's troops, under General Fitz-John Porter, resisted the assaults of almost twice as many Confederates. McClellan now changed the base of his supplies from the York to the James river, and his trains were transferred across the Chickahominy while the battle of

Gaines' Mill was in progress. On the same day another part of the Confederate army, under General Magruder, engaged the Union troops south of the Chickahominy, thus preventing them from properly aiding Porter. Porter resisted the Confederate assaults until night, when he crossed the Chickahominy and joined the main body of McClellan's army. The next day McClellan transferred most of his army across White Oak Swamp. On the morning of June 29 Lee crossed the Chickahominy in pursuit of McClellan, and the fierce battles of Peach Orchard Station and Savage Station occurred on that day. Magruder attacked the Union rear-guard under General Sumner at Savage Station, Sumner resisting his foe until dark, when he withdrew across White Oak Swamp, having secured a safe passage for the Union artillery and trains. Stonewall Jackson pursued the National troops in their retreat, while General Longstreet passed around to the south of White Oak Swamp to attack them on their flank. On June 30 was fought the desperate battle of White Oak Swamp, or Glendale. General Franklin held Stonewall Jackson at bay at White Oak Swamp, while Generals McCall, Sumner, Hooker and Kearny repelled Longstreet's impetuous assaults at Charles City Cross Roads. During the night the troops that had checked the advance of Jackson and Longstreet joined the main body of McClellan's army at Malvern Hill. The next day, July 1, 1862, occurred the dreadful battle of Malvern Hill, in which the Confederates charged upon McClellan's strong position, but were mowed down by the Union artillery and disastrously repulsed.

Thus ended the great Seven Days' Battles before Richmond in the failure of McClellan's advance upon the Confederate capital. Each army numbered about one hundred thousand men. The National army lost sixteen thousand men, and the Confederates almost twenty thousand. Lee had raised the siege of Richmond at a heavy cost. McClellan took position at Harrison's Landing, while Lee led his army back to Richmond.

On the 1st of July, 1862, President Lincoln called for three hundred thousand more men for the National army, and on the 11th of the same month General Henry W. Halleck was appointed commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, establishing his headquarters in Washington.

On the very day that the Seven Days' Battles before Richmond commenced—June 25, 1862—the forces under Generals Banks, Fremont and McDowell were consolidated into one army named the *Army of Virginia*, the command of which was assigned to General John Pope. This army soon found sufficient employment, as the Confederates, under General Lee and Stonewall Jackson, flushed with their successes over McClellan's army near Richmond, marched northward for the purpose of taking Washington. Fremont resigned and was succeeded by Sigel.

Lee commenced his operations against Pope by sending Stonewall Jackson with a strong column against this new foe. Jackson met that portion of the Army of Virginia under General Banks at Cedar Mountain, in Culpepper county, Virginia, where a spirited but indecisive action was fought on August 9, 1862. Though Jackson's force was twice the size of that of Banks, the Confederate general failed to gain any decisive advantage.

After the battle of Cedar Mountain, Pope marched his whole army to the Rapid Anna. Jackson fell back across that stream to await the approach of Lee, who was hurrying forward the main body of his army to overwhelm Pope before he could be reinforced. Perceiving his danger Pope fell back to the north bank of the Rappahannock, where he successfully resisted every effort of the Confederate army to cross until August 24, 1862. In the meantime the Confederates under General Stuart made a dash upon Catlett's Station, thirteen miles in Pope's rear, and seized prisoners, horses, and the baggage of General Pope and his staff.

At length the Confederates flanked the Army of Virginia, and a succession of san-

guinary battles were fought at and near the old Bull Run battle-ground, beginning on August 24, and ending on September 1, 1862. On August 26 Jackson crossed the Rappahannock at a point farther up the river than the Union army could guard, marched through Thoroughfare Gap, and cut off Pope's railroad communications with Washington. Pope thereupon fell back from the Rappahannock. The next day, August 27, General Hooker's division routed the Confederate corps under General Ewell in an action known as the battle of Kettle Run. Heavy battles followed on the plains of Manassas, such as the battle of Groveton, August 29, and the second battle of Bull Run, August 30, when Pope was compelled to fall back. Two days later, September 1, occurred the battle of Chantilly, in which the brave Generals Stevens and Kearny were among the killed on the National side, and which was the last conflict of this campaign. The Confederate loss in this series of battles was fifteen thousand men, while the National loss was twenty thousand men. Pope's army was so badly defeated that, to escape total destruction, it was compelled to seek safety behind the fortifications of Washington.

McClellan had in the meantime come up from the Virginia peninsula, but too late to aid Pope. Soon after his disastrous defeats, Pope resigned his command; and early in September, 1862, the Armies of Virginia and the Potomac were consolidated, and were thereafter known as the *Army of the Potomac*, the command of which was entrusted to General McClellan for the defense of Washington. Flushed with their successes over Pope, the Confederates, under the command of General Robert Edmund Lee, their commander-in-chief, now crossed the Potomac into Maryland, at Point of Rocks, and entered Frederick. McClellan followed on their right flank, to cover Washington and Baltimore. Lee's invasion of Maryland caused intense excitement and alarm throughout Pennsylvania, especially in the southern counties of the Cumberland and Susquehanna valleys. The men sent their

wives and children and movable property farther north, while they themselves hastened to take up arms to repel the invaders. Lee expected to find the people of Maryland ready to sustain the Confederate cause, but in this he was disappointed, and his proclamation to them was not well received.

On the 14th of September, 1862, the advance of McClellan's army under General Reno and others overtook Lee's rear and defeated it in a fierce engagement known as the battle of South Mountain, driving the Confederates across the mountain, but the victory of the National army was dearly purchased, as the gallant General Reno was killed. The next day, September 15, 1862, after a slight skirmish, Harper's Ferry, with its garrison of twelve thousand National troops, was shamefully surrendered to Stonewall Jackson by its commander, Colonel D. H. Miles, a Marylander. Over two thousand Union cavalry broke through the Confederate lines before the surrender, and escaped. Jackson immediately joined Lee, who, after the battle of South Mountain, had posted his army west of Antietam creek, near Sharpsburg.

On the 17th of September, 1862, was fought the great battle of Antietam between the armies of McClellan and Lee, the former having almost ninety thousand men, and the latter about sixty thousand. The battle raged all day from dawn till dark, and the Confederates were defeated with the loss of twenty thousand men, while the National loss was about fifteen thousand men. Among the killed on the National side were the heroic Generals Mansfield, Richardson and Rodman. Immediately after the battle Lee's army fell back to the Potomac, which it crossed, and retreated in the direction of Richmond, without being pursued by McClellan's victorious army.

About three weeks after the battle of Antietam a Confederate force under General Stuart made a destructive raid as far as Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania, and, sweeping entirely around the Army of the Potomac, he returned to Virginia. McClellan remained in Maryland more than a month

after the battle of Antietam and it was late in October when he crossed the Potomac into Virginia. On November 5, 1862, while stationed near Front Royal, he was relieved of the command of the Army of the Potomac, by order of the War Department, and General Ambrose E. Burnside was appointed to take his place.

Lee, in the meantime, had led his army from the Shenandoah Valley across the Blue Ridge and taken post on the Rappahannock, at Fredericksburg. About the middle of November Burnside led the Army of the Potomac from the Shenandoah Valley across the Blue Ridge in pursuit of Lee and crossed the Rappahannock at Fredericksburg. On December 13, 1862, occurred the great battle of Fredericksburg, in which Burnside attempted to carry by storm that city and the Confederate works in the rear, but was repulsed after hard fighting, with the loss of fourteen thousand men, the gallant General Bayard, of Delaware, being killed. Lee's loss was only about five thousand men. The Army of the Potomac then recrossed to the north side of the Rappahannock, where it remained until May, 1863.

Late in the summer and during the fall of 1862, while the Confederates under General Lee and Stonewall Jackson invaded Maryland, two Confederate armies under the respective commands of Generals E. Kirby Smith and Braxton Bragg invaded Kentucky from Tennessee and threatened to carry the war north of the Ohio River, as Lee prepared to do north of Mason and Dixon's line.

General E. Kirby Smith invaded Eastern Kentucky from East Tennessee in the latter part of August, 1862, and defeated a part of the National army commanded by General Nelson at Richmond, Kentucky, on August 29 and 30, the very days of General Pope's defeats in Virginia by Lee and Stonewall Jackson in the battle of Groveton and the second battle of Bull Run. After this victory Smith occupied Lexington and also Frankfort, the capital of Kentucky, and threatened Cincinnati, the affrighted Legislature of Kentucky fleeing to Louisville.

About the same time General Bragg invaded the more western portion of Kentucky and advanced in the direction of Louisville, sending out foraging parties to ravage the country and collect supplies. A part of his army under General Simon Bolivar Buckner was repulsed in an attack upon four thousand Union troops under Colonel John T. Wilder, at Mumfordsville, September 14, the day of the battle of South Mountain, in Maryland; but two days later, September 16, General Leonidas Polk, with twenty-five thousand of Bragg's troops, defeated Wilder and compelled him to surrender. In addition to the invasions of Kentucky by Bragg and Kirby Smith, guerrilla bands, under Generals John H. Morgan and N. B. Forrest and others, made destructive raids through Central and Eastern Kentucky, sacking towns and seizing or destroying property, and even crossed the Ohio River and plundered Newburg, Indiana.

The Confederate invaders had expected to find the people of Kentucky in sympathy with their cause, but they were disappointed in this and consequently soon retreated southward toward Tennessee, closely pursued by the National forces under the general command of General Don Carlos Buell. In the battle of Perryville, October 8, 1862, Bragg made a stand against the pursuing Union army, and hurled his army against the troops under Generals McCook and Rousseau, but was defeated and compelled to resume his retreat, carrying his immense booty with him. Each army lost almost four thousand men in this bloody battle. Both Bragg and Kirby Smith abandoned Kentucky and fled into Tennessee about the same time, October, 1862. The Confederate invasion of Kentucky compelled the Union troops to evacuate the important post of Cumberland Gap, in the Cumberland Mountains, at a point where the State lines of Kentucky, Tennessee and Virginia meet.

General Buell pursued the Confederates in their retreat from Kentucky into Tennessee, and late in October, 1862, he was

superseded in his command by General Rosecrans, who closed the campaign this year by his dearly-bought victory over Bragg in the battle of Stone River or Murfreesboro, Tennessee, which commenced on December 31, 1862, and ended on January 2, 1863. Rosecrans had about forty-five thousand men, and Bragg had somewhat more. The Union loss was twelve thousand men, while the Confederate loss was somewhat less. Rosecrans' subordinate generals were McCook, Thomas, Rousseau, Palmer, Hazen, Negley, Sheridan, Crittenden, Jefferson C. Davis and others. Bragg's subordinate generals were Kirby Smith, Breckinridge, Hardee, Polk, Cheat-ham and others.

In 1862 the blockade of the Southern ports by the National navy was made still more effective. The Confederates made great exertions to prepare a navy and they procured vessels in Europe to prey upon National ships, and the commerce of the United States was almost driven from the seas, except where it was under the protection of armed vessels. The *Oreto* (afterward the *Florida*) and the *Alabama*, both built in England, were permitted by the British government to pass into Confederate hands. As they were unable to enter any Confederate port, and were not permitted to take their prizes into any foreign port, they usually burned their captured ships and their cargoes.

During the summer of 1862, while the Great Civil War was devastating half the Union, the Sioux Indians in Minnesota, led by Little Crow and other chiefs, began a murderous war on the white people of that State, and perpetrated many atrocious massacres, killing more than seven hundred whites and driving about twenty-five thousand from their homes.

The Indians had been dissatisfied for a long time, especially complaining of the course pursued by the white traders and of the delay of the National government in making the annual payments due them by treaty. The Indians began their outrages on August 17, 1862, when a party of Sioux

murdered some whites near the town of Acton, and the next day they indulged in a general massacre of the white settlers on the upper Minnesota river. After defeating the few United States troops sent against them, the Indians perpetrated fiendish massacres throughout the whole western part of Minnesota, and also in Iowa and the Territory of Dakota. The savages inflicted every kind of atrocity upon their victims. A fierce attack which the Indians made upon New Ulm, an isolated town of about fifteen hundred inhabitants, was repulsed with difficulty, after which the inhabitants fled from the town. Colonel (afterward General) Henry H. Sibley relieved Fort Ridgely, after a siege of several days, led an expedition up the Minnesota Valley, defeated Little Crow and his warriors and drove them into Dakota, September, 1862. Several hundred of the savages were captured and thirty-eight were hanged for their murders.

In the meantime General John Pope was assigned to the command of this department. The next summer (1863) the savages renewed their outrages; but they were hunted down and their chief, Little Crow, was killed; and General Sibley led an expedition in pursuit of the hostile tribes, and drove them across the Missouri river in September, after considerable fighting during a tedious campaign. This was one of the greatest Indian wars in the history of the United States, but it did not attract the attention it deserved from the people, on account of the overshadowing magnitude of the Great Civil War.

While the Civil War was raging on sea and land during the year 1862, the National government was devising measures for the preservation of the Union. Early in April Congress passed an act providing for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. The bill received the signature of the President and became a law on June 16. On the 20th of the same month (June, 1862) the President signed a bill passed by Congress for the prohibition of slavery in the Territories of the United States. Congress

also authorized the President to proclaim the freedom of the slaves; and on September 22, 1862, he issued a proclamation warning the Confederates that he would proclaim the emancipation of every slave in the seceded States within a hundred days, if they refused to lay down their arms and return to their allegiance to the United States government within that period.

Never during the whole period of the Civil War did the cause of the Union appear more gloomy than at the close of 1862. The military power of the Southern Confederacy was as formidable as ever, and very little had been accomplished toward its overthrow. There were about seven hundred thousand National troops in the field, while the Confederate army was larger than at any previous or subsequent period. The repeated calls of the President for volunteers constantly recruited the National armies, and finally in the fall of 1862 a draft was resorted to; but owing to the efforts made to obtain volunteers, especially the high bounties paid by States, counties, cities, towns, townships and individuals, to all who would enlist, comparatively few troops were obtained by draft in 1862, or during the war. The Confederate armies were recruited by sweeping conscriptions at various times during the war.

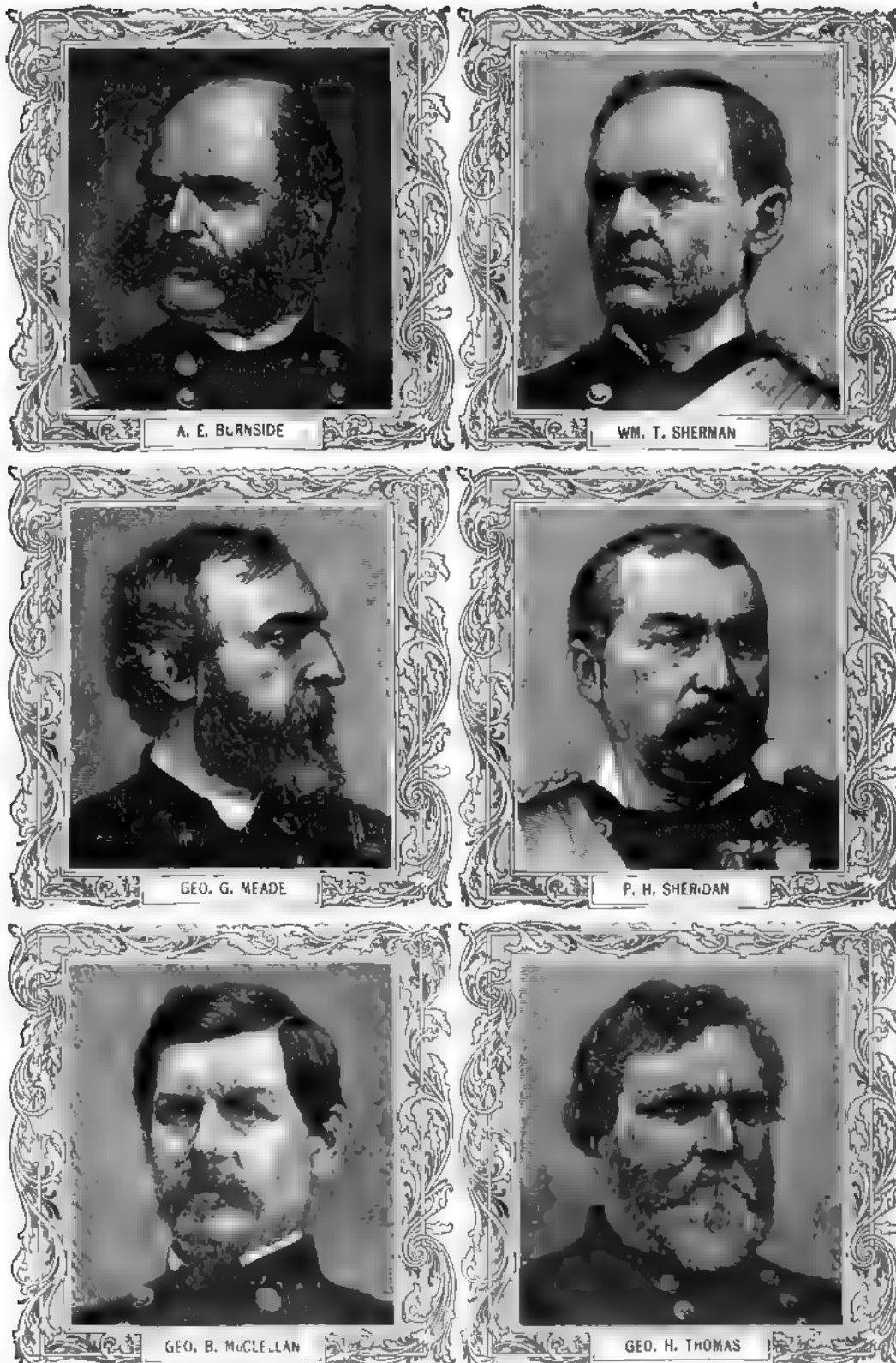
Party spirit had subsided in the Northern States during the first year and a half of the war. The attack on Fort Sumter had the effect of solidly uniting the North, so that there was but one party in the Free States for the time; but after the Confederate successes during the summer of 1862, and the President's proclamation of September 22, of that year, the Peace Democrats bitterly denounced the policy of the Administration in its prosecution of the war, while the War Democrats sustained the Administration. Among the most prominent of the War Democrats was Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, whom the President had appointed Military Governor of that State. Another was Joseph Holt, of Kentucky, a member of Buchanan's Cabinet, whom President Lincoln appointed Judge Advocate General.

Party spirit was again extremely violent in the North, and the supporters and opponents of the Administration manifested the most bitter hatred of each other, and the utmost intolerance of each others' opinions. Various epithets were applied by the opposing parties to their respective opponents, the best known being the epithet "Copperheads," applied to the Anti-War Democrats by the supporters of the war policy of the Administration. The reaction against the Administration, in consequence of the ill success of the National arms in the campaign of 1862, had the effect of giving a temporary triumph to the Anti-War Democracy in the elections in many of the Northern States in the fall of 1862.

As the Confederates paid no attention to the proclamation issued by the President on September 22, 1862, he issued his *Emancipation Proclamation*, January 1, 1863, declaring forever free all the slaves in Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas and Arkansas, excepting West Virginia and such portions of the seceded States as were in the hands of the National troops at that time. This decisive step destroyed the last hope of foreign aid to the Confederates. England had threatened to recognize the Confederacy if the National government did not emancipate the slaves.

In Virginia, early in 1863, the Confederates under General W. H. F. Lee failed in an attempt to capture a National force at Gloucester, opposite Yorktown, early in February; Colonel John S. Mosby, the notorious guerrilla chief, captured a small Union force at Fairfax Court House, March 8; and the Confederate cavalry under Fitz-Hugh Lee defeated the Union cavalry under General William W. Averill near Kelly's Ford, on the Rappahannock, in March, each losing almost a hundred men.

On the 27th of January, 1863, General Burnside was relieved of the command of the Army of the Potomac, and succeeded by General Joseph Hooker. Hooker crossed the Rappahannock river, May 1, 1863, for another advance upon Richmond, and on the 2d, 3d and 4th his army engaged in a severe



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battle with Lee's army at Chancellorsville, about ten miles west of Fredericksburg. Hooker began his advance with every promise of success. His army was about one hundred and twenty-five thousand strong, about twice as large as Lee's army. After sending General George Stoneman's cavalry to cut off Lee's communications with the Confederate capital, Hooker dispatched General John Sedgwick with a part of his army across the Rappahannock near Fredericksburg, and himself led the main body of his army some miles up the river, where he crossed to Chancellorsville; but he was met and routed by Lee, May 2, 1863. The next morning, May 3, 1863, Hooker was again attacked and defeated by Lee, but in the meantime Sedgwick had carried the heights of Fredericksburg, and was threatening Lee's rear. Having worsted Hooker, Lee now fiercely attacked Sedgwick, and after two days' severe fighting drove him back upon the Rappahannock, which Sedgwick crossed that night. Hooker had put his army in a perilous position by dividing it, but Lee also placed his own victorious army in a like perilous situation by dividing it and sending Jackson with a portion to watch one wing of the Union army, while himself with the main body watched the other wing of Hooker's forces. The Confederate victory was dearly purchased with the death of the famous general, Stonewall Jackson, himself worth an army to them in the magic of his name. It was believed that he was shot by his own troops by mistake. He was idolized by his troops and by the Southern people. He was intensely religious, and before battle was always found praying in his tent. His only baggage at times was said to have been his Bible and his maps. The Confederate loss amounted to twelve thousand men, while the Union loss was over seventeen thousand men, Generals Berry and Whipple being among the killed. Hooker recrossed the Rappahannock with the remainder of his army on the night of May 5, 1863, and rejoined Sedgwick.

After the battle of Chancellorsville, Lee's army began to march northward for the pur-

pose of carrying the war into the loyal States. In June, 1863, he moved down the Shenandoah Valley, took Winchester and Martinsburg, crossed the Potomac near Williamsport, Maryland, and advanced into Pennsylvania. Hooker followed with his army on the right flank of the Confederates, in order to save Washington and Baltimore from capture. When Hooker reached Frederick, Maryland, he resigned his command, June 28, 1863, and General George Gordon Meade was appointed to the command of the Army of the Potomac by the War Department.

After the defeat of General Milroy's cavalry near Winchester, Virginia, by the Confederates, the utmost alarm spread throughout the Cumberland Valley, in Pennsylvania. There were also cavalry skirmishes and sharp encounters at Beverly Ford and Brandy Station, at Aldie and Middleburg. The rapid advance of the Confederates created the utmost consternation throughout the counties of the southern border of Pennsylvania, and aroused great excitement throughout the entire North. Governor Curtin, of Pennsylvania, called out one hundred thousand militia to repel the invasion, and Governor Seymour, of New York, offered fifty thousand militia from that State to assist in driving back the invaders. The calling out of the Pennsylvania militia was in response to the call of President Lincoln summoning the militia from Pennsylvania, Ohio, Maryland and West Virginia to take the field against the invaders.

After crossing the Potomac the Confederates rapidly advanced toward the Susquehanna, and all the fords and ferries along the lower portion of the latter stream were guarded by Pennsylvania militia. It was evident that a decisive struggle was at hand. At the end of June Lee's forces were in Pennsylvania, scattered at different points. Lee and Longstreet proceeded toward Chambersburg. General A. P. Hill occupied Chambersburg. General Early occupied York, and a small detachment under General John B. Gordon marched to Wrights-

ville, on the Susquehanna, and routed the militia in a short skirmish there, while a bridge crossing the river between that place and Columbia was uselessly burned by the militia in order to prevent the invaders from crossing the river, Sunday night, June 28, 1863. General Ewell, in the meanwhile, pushed down the Cumberland Valley toward Harrisburg, shelled Carlisle three times during the last few days of June, and advanced to within a few miles of Pennsylvania's capital, creating intense alarm and excitement. The Union cavalry under General Judson Kilpatrick had a sharp skirmish with the Confederate cavalry under General Stuart, at Hanover, York county, Pennsylvania, June 29, 1863.

The Confederate detachments were finally called in by Lee, who concentrated his army at Gettysburg, the county seat of Adams county, Pennsylvania. There the armies of Meade and Lee, each numbering about eighty thousand men, engaged in a great three days' battle, which was the turning point of the great American Civil War. The battle began on the morning of July 1, 1863, when the first corps of the Union army under the command of General John Fulton Reynolds encountered the Confederate corps under General A. P. Hill west of Gettysburg. The struggle was suddenly brought about by the unexpected engagement between Buford's cavalry and the Confederate cavalry. General Reynolds was shot dead by a sharpshooter while directing the engagement, and a few days later his remains were taken to his native place, Lancaster, Pennsylvania, where they were interred. He had been General Meade's right-hand man, and his untimely death was sincerely lamented. Strong reinforcements were received in the afternoon, and a terrible conflict was fought for the possession of Seminary Ridge. The conflict raged until four in the afternoon, when the Confederates had the advantage. The National troops were driven from their position, through Gettysburg, to the hills southward, where a new line of battle was formed at nightfall, extending from Round Top to Cemetery Hill, and thence to Culp's

Hill. The entire National army was moved to that strong position during the night. The Confederate forces were all brought into position on Seminary Ridge and other high grounds, forming a semi-circular line five miles long. The cavalry of both armies hung upon the flanks.

The battle was renewed at four o'clock in the afternoon of the second day, July 2, 1863, and lasted until ten at night. The Confederate corps under General Longstreet attacked the Union left under General Daniel E. Sickles, which was posted on Round Top and Little Round Top, and at six in the evening, after terrible fighting, the National troops still held those strong positions. The Union left center, under General Winfield Scott Hancock, repulsed the assaults of the Confederates with heavy loss, after a most sanguinary struggle. The Union right center, under General Oliver O. Howard, on Cemetery Hill, was struggling desperately with the Confederate division under General Jubal Early, of Ewell's corps, and the National line was also maintained there at nightfall, in spite of the most desperate Confederate assaults. The Union right under General Henry W. Slocum on Culp's Hill was somewhat shattered in its fierce struggle with the Confederate division under General Bushrod Johnson, also of Ewell's corp, which finally captured the works on Slocum's extreme right. When the day's fighting ceased, at ten o'clock at night, the positions of the two armies had not been materially changed. On the Union side Generals Hancock and Gibbon were wounded, and General Sickles was so severely wounded in one leg that amputation was necessary. The Confederate General Barksdale, of Mississippi, was killed, and his dead body was left within the Union lines. During the night both armies prepared to renew the struggle the next day.

The battle was renewed at four o'clock in the morning of the third day, July 3, 1863, and lasted twelve hours. Slocum drove the Confederates out of his lines after a hard fight. At one o'clock in the afternoon Lee

began the most terrific cannonade that ever occurred on the American continent, and for two hours the thunders of almost two hundred and fifty pieces of heavy artillery shook the hills about Gettysburg. The Confederate artillerymen, with one hundred and forty-five cannon, concentrated their fire on the center of the National army at Cemetery Hill, producing dreadful havoc and carnage. The Union artillery, embracing about a hundred cannon, replied vigorously to the Confederate fire. When the cannonade ceased, a Confederate column, almost three miles in length, led by General Pickett's Virginians, desperately charged the center of the Union army, but were repulsed with the most terrific carnage, thus ending the battle of Gettysburg in a great and decisive victory for the National army; and Lee was obliged to retreat with his shattered army toward the Potomac. The Confederate General Armistead was wounded and captured, in leading his troops in the charge on the Union breastworks. In this greatest battle of the Civil War, Lee's army lost almost thirty thousand men, while the National army lost over twenty-three thousand.

The battle of Gettysburg is regarded as the great and decisive battle of the Civil War, as the fate of the Union was practically decided at Gettysburg, because had Lee triumphed on Northern soil Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia and New York would all have been at the mercy of the Confederates, and the Southern Confederacy would have been recognized as an independent power. Thus Gettysburg, and not Appomattox, decided the fate of the Union, just as Saratoga, and not Yorktown, decided the struggle for American independence. The battle of Gettysburg, which rescued the Union and also rescued Pennsylvania from Confederate invasion, was noted for the conspicuous part borne therein by three eminent Pennsylvania commanders—Meade, Reynolds and Hancock. This victory, together with that won by General Grant in the capture of Vicksburg, July 4, 1863, produced the liveliest joy throughout the North.

After the battle of Gettysburg, the Confederate army under General Lee, now numbering about fifty thousand men, thoroughly demoralized, made a precipitate flight toward Virginia, closely pursued by the victorious Army of the Potomac under General Meade; and it was not long before both armies again found themselves south of the Potomac. Lee continued his retreat across the Potomac near Williamsport, Maryland, up the Shenandoah Valley, through the passes of the Blue Ridge, and in September he took position south of the Rapid Anna. Meade pursued, crossed the Potomac near Harper's Ferry, kept east of the Blue Ridge, and posted his army about Culpepper and Brandy Station, north of the Rapid Anna. The two armies thus confronted each other until the next spring, and there were unsuccessful movements on the part of each to out-manuever the other.

In September, 1863, Lee sent a part of his army under Longstreet to reinforce Bragg in Tennessee, while Meade sent a part of his army under Hooker to reinforce Rosecrans, who was contending with Bragg in that State. In October Lee's army drove the Army of the Potomac back upon Manassas, but was in turn compelled to retreat, after some skirmishing. Severe skirmishes at Rappahannock Station and Kelly's Ford, November 7, 1863, resulted in the capture of two-thousand Confederates by a portion of Meade's army under Generals John Sedgwick and W. H. French. Meade next crossed the Rapid Anna and made feints upon Lee's right, encamped on Mine Run, but as he found Lee's position too strong for successful attack he recrossed the river, and the two armies went into winter quarters.

In the summer of 1863 a Union raiding party struck the Virginia and Tennessee Railway near Wytheville, in the southwestern part of Virginia; and a strong Union cavalry force under General William W. Averill made a raid in the Shenandoah Valley, destroyed salt works and other property, but was routed in a two days' fight with Confederate cavalry near White Sulphur Springs, August 26 and 27. In November

he drove most of the Confederate troops from West Virginia, and in December he destroyed fifteen miles of the Virginia and Tennessee Railway at and about Salem, west of Lynchburg.

The great enterprise in the Southwest during 1863 was the opening of the Mississippi river, which task was assigned to General Grant. After Sherman's unsuccessful attack on Vicksburg, Mississippi, at the close of 1862, that General was succeeded in his command by General John A. McClernand, who went up the Arkansas river, and, in conjunction with Admiral Porter, captured Arkansas Post with its garrison of five thousand Confederate troops, after a severe engagement on January 11, 1863.

Vicksburg was regarded as impregnable by the Confederates, as it is situated on a high bluff on the east bank of the Mississippi, and as formidable batteries and forts crowned the bluff for miles and completely commanded the river. The Union fleet under Admiral Farragut and the flotilla under Commodore Davis vainly bombarded the city during the spring and early part of the summer of 1862. The Mississippi makes a bend in front of Vicksburg, forming a tongue of land opposite the city. Grant attempted to cut a channel across this tongue, and thus turn the river from its natural course, leaving Vicksburg inland. This attempt failed, as did also attempts to pass round the city and get to its rear.

Toward the close of April, 1863, Grant suddenly marched his army from Milliken's Bend, above Vicksburg, to a point on the river below, while Admiral Porter's gunboats and transports ran past the Confederate batteries at Grand Gulf under cover of the darkness of night. After crossing the river at Bruinsburg, April 30, 1863, Grant, by a succession of rapidly executed movements, won a series of brilliant victories over the Confederates in May. He defeated Pemberton at Port Gibson, May 1. On May 8 he was reinforced by Sherman, who had been repulsed in two attempts to capture Haines' Bluff. Grant then marched against the Confederates under General Joseph E.

Johnston, at Jackson, Mississippi's capital, and was victorious in the battle of Raymond, May 12, and in the battle of Jackson, May 14. Johnson was driven northward, and Grant took Jackson and burned much public property. Grant then defeated Pemberton in the battle of Champion Hill, May 16, and in the battle of Big Black River Bridge, May 17. By these victories Grant compelled the Confederates to evacuate Grand Gulf, prevented the union of the armies of Johnston and Pemberton, and drove Pemberton back within the intrenchments of Vicksburg, which was then closely besieged by Grant's victorious army, aided by Admiral Porter's gunboats.

Grant's movements were facilitated by a cavalry expedition under Colonel Benjamin H. Grierson, who made a raid from La-grange, Tennessee, southward through



ADMIRAL DAVID D. PORTER.

Mississippi, to Baton Rouge, Louisiana, which he reached May 2, 1863, after having traversed six hundred miles of hostile territory in little more than two weeks, cutting the enemy's communications, and destroying railroad bridges, rolling-stock and military supplies. A Confederate force of twenty-five hundred men attacked the Union camp at Milliken's Bend, June 6, 1863, but was repulsed by the garrison, a thousand strong, aided by two gunboats.

Late in May, 1863, the Army of the Mississippi under General Grant, assisted by Admiral Porter's gunboats, completely invested



GENERAL ULYSSES S. GRANT.

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Vicksburg, which was garrisoned by a large Confederate army under General John C. Pemberton. For more than six weeks the besiegers kept up an incessant bombardment upon the beleaguered city. Assistance and escape were both impossible to the doomed garrison. Grant was repulsed in two efforts to carry the Confederate works by storm, but the siege was prosecuted with so much vigor that Pemberton asked for an armistice on July 3, the day of the Confederate rout at Gettysburg, and later in the day the two generals met between the lines to confer about the capitulation of the garrison; and the next morning, July 4, 1863, Pemberton surrendered his whole force, amounting to more than thirty thousand men, and the city of Vicksburg into the hands of Grant. The prisoners were paroled; but the Confederate government placed most of them in its armies again. After that the Unionists refused to parole any prisoners whom they could hold, but sent them to detached stations in the North for confinement until exchanged. Grant's loss from the time of his crossing at Bruinsburg to the fall of Vicksburg was about eight thousand men.

While the siege of Vicksburg was in progress, General Joseph E. Johnston had been hovering in Grant's rear. Immediately after the capture of the city General Sherman went in pursuit of him and drove him back to Jackson and thence eastward. Johnston afterward sent part of his army to reinforce Bragg in Tennessee. Grant likewise sent expeditions to various points on both sides of the Mississippi, to capture Confederate troops or guerrilla parties, to seize Confederate supplies, or to cut Confederate communications. While Grant and Sherman led a large portion of the Army of the Mississippi from Vicksburg to East Tennessee, General James B. McPherson was left in command of the remainder, and he continued the work of destroying the enemy's transportation and resources.

The fall of Port Hudson, four days after that of Vicksburg, opened the Mississippi from its source to its mouth and severed the Confederacy into two parts. General Banks

had superseded General Butler in command at New Orleans late in 1862, and sent troops to Galveston, Texas. On New Year's night, 1863, after the Union troops had taken Galveston, the Confederates under General Magruder attacked them by land and water, retook the city, killed or captured the Union garrison of three hundred men, and seized some of the government shipping in the harbor.

During the winter and spring of 1863 General Banks overran Louisiana from New Orleans to the Red River, defeated the Confederates in a number of actions, and captured many prisoners, some artillery and much public property. Among the Confederate commanders whom he defeated was General Richard Taylor, son of President Zachary Taylor and brother of the wife of Jefferson Davis. On the 8th of May, Banks entered Alexandria, Louisiana, on the Red River, which city had been captured the previous day by Admiral Porter with his gunboats. Banks then returned to the Mississippi and invested Port Hudson, above Baton Rouge, but was repulsed in two assaults. On July 8, 1863, Port Hudson, with its garrison of five thousand Confederate troops under General Frank Gardner, was surrendered to Banks, thus overcoming the last obstruction to the navigation of the Mississippi river.

In the meantime the Confederates under General Richard Taylor reoccupied Alexandria, and swooped down on the Mississippi and captured the Union garrison at Brashear City, but abandoned that place, with the whole region east of the Atchafalaya, after the fall of Port Hudson.

After the capture of Port Hudson, General Banks sent General William B. Franklin with an expedition of four thousand troops in transports, aided by four gunboats under Lieutenant Crocker, to take possession of Sabine Pass, Texas; but two of the gunboats surrendered to the Confederates, September 8, 1863, after being disabled in an attack upon the Confederate batteries, manned by about forty Irishmen, each of whom received a silver medal from Jefferson Davis

for bravery on this occasion; and Franklin's expedition returned to New Orleans. In October, 1863, Banks sent an expedition of six thousand troops under General Dana by water to break up the vast trade which had been carried on across the Rio Grande, at Brownsville, Texas. Union troops were landed at Brazos Santiago, on the Texas bank of Rio Grande, and in November of the same year Brownsville and the Rio Grande thence to its mouth were held by the Union forces, which afterward occupied more than half the coast of Texas.

In Missouri and Arkansas the Confederates were active and restless during 1863, but accomplished very little. General Marmaduke with a Confederate force invaded Southwestern Missouri from Arkansas, but was repulsed in his attacks upon Springfield, January 8, and Hartville, January 11, and driven back into Arkansas. In April, Marmaduke made another raid into Missouri, this time invading the southeastern part of the State with eight thousand men, but he was repulsed in his attack upon Cape Girardeau, on the Mississippi river, April 26, by Union troops under General McNeill, and was again driven back into Arkansas.

Two thousand Confederates were repulsed in an attack on a Union force under Colonel Harrison at Fayetteville, in Northwestern Arkansas, April 18, and driven over the Ozark mountains. A force of Texans and Creek Indians were repulsed in an attack on a Union wagon-train near Fort Blunt, July 1, and General Blunt defeated six thousand Confederates under General Cooper at Honey Springs, July 17. The Confederates under General Holmes were repulsed in an attack upon the Union force under General Prentiss, at Helena, Arkansas, on the Mississippi river, July 4, 1863, the day of the capture of Vicksburg and Lee's retreat from Gettysburg. General Blunt took Fort Smith, in Northwestern Arkansas, September 1; and another Union force under General Frederick Steele captured Little Rock, the capital of Arkansas, September 10, 1863, thus completely breaking the power of the

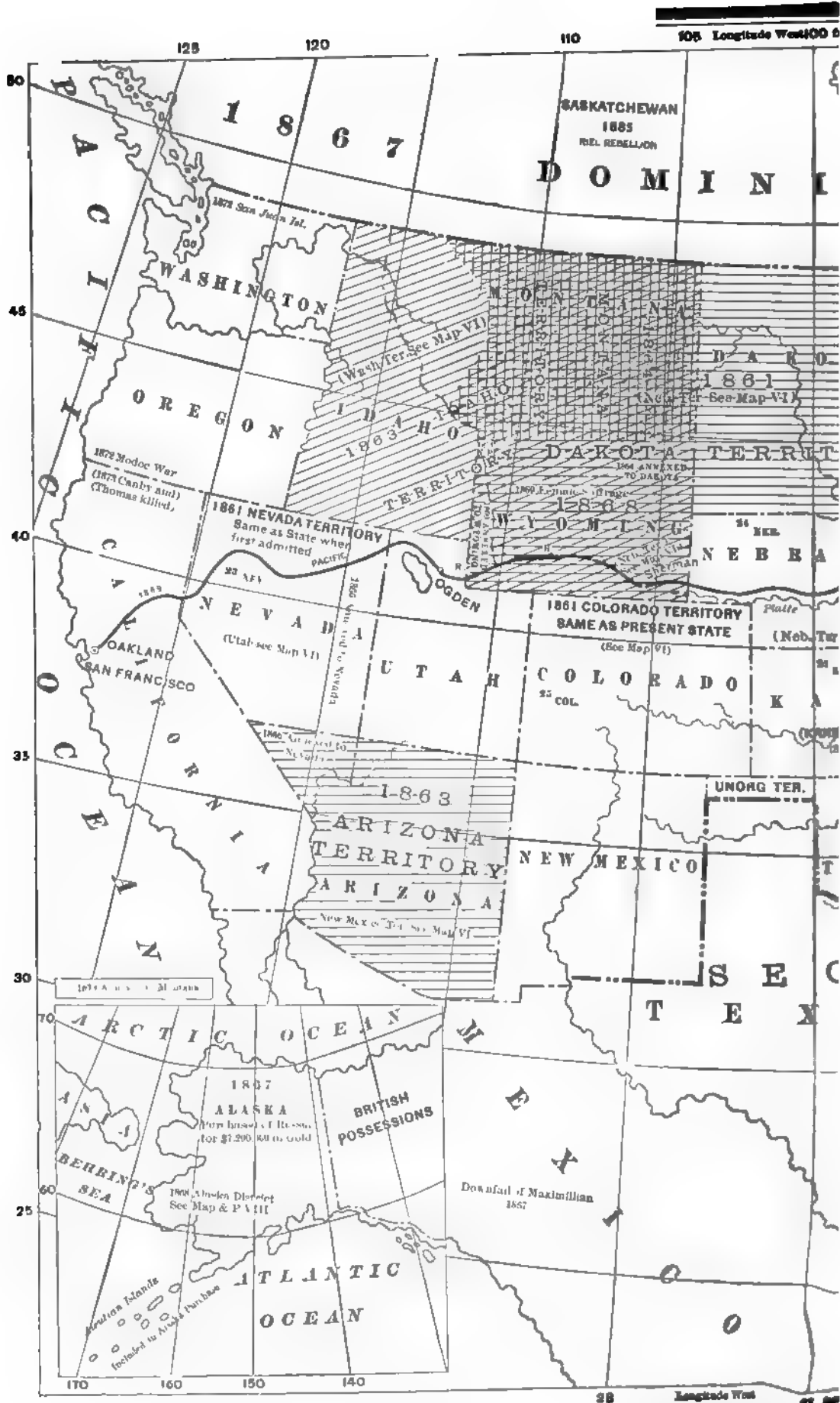
Confederates in that State, in which the National authority was thus restored.

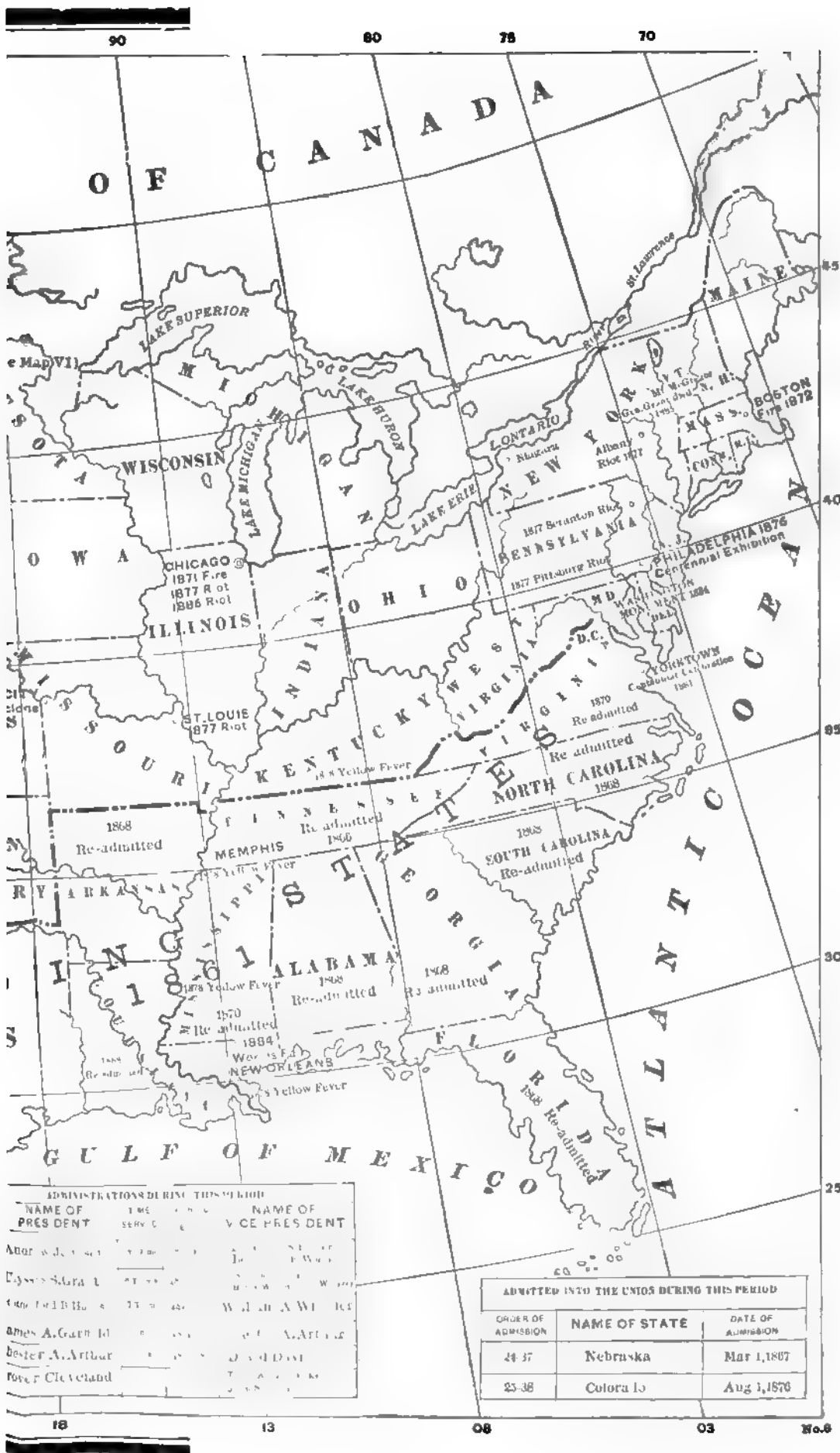
Guerrilla bands had in the meantime been active in Western Arkansas; and three hundred guerrillas under the notorious Quantrell sacked the town of Lawrence, Kansas, massacred one hundred and forty of the inhabitants, burned almost two hundred buildings, and carried away or destroyed two million dollars' worth of property, August 13. The guerrillas were pursued and some were slain, while Jeff Thompson was captured. A Confederate force of twenty-five hundred men under Generals Shelby and Coffey made a raid from Arkansas into Missouri and reached Booneville, on the Missouri river, October 1, but were quickly driven back into Arkansas by Generals McNeill and Brown. Marmaduke was repulsed by Colonel Powell Clayton in an attack on Pine Bluff, Arkansas, October 25.

In Kentucky the Union force under General Gillmore routed the Confederates near Somerset, March 30, 1863. About the time of Lee's invasion of Pennsylvania about three thousand guerrillas, under General John H. Morgan, made a daring raid through Kentucky and suddenly crossed the Ohio river into Indiana, at Brandenburg, and advanced eastward into Ohio, plundering or destroying property as they went. The Indiana and Ohio militia took the field to repel the invaders, and General Burnside, then in command in East Tennessee, sent a detachment in pursuit of them. Morgan attempted to recross the Ohio river near Pomeroy, but was driven back. After many of the raiders had been killed or captured, Morgan surrendered with the remainder, numbering about eight hundred men, to General Shackelford, in Morgan county, Ohio, July 26, 1863.

In Eastern North Carolina, during the spring of 1863, the National forces under the command of General John G. Foster repelled the assaults of the Confederates under General D. H. Hill and others, and foiled their attempts to obtain the entire control of that region. Foster repulsed Hill's attacks upon

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Newbern in March and upon Washington in April. Early in May the Confederates under Generals Longstreet and D. H. Hill were repulsed in an attempt to take by siege the town of Suffolk, in Southeastern Virginia, by the garrison of fourteen thousand National troops under General Peck, who were assisted by Union gunboats.

During the spring and summer of 1863 the National army and navy under General Gillmore and Admiral Dahlgren were vigorously besieging Charleston, in South Carolina. The Union navy was repulsed in attacks upon Fort McAllister early in the year. On April 7, 1863, an unsuccessful assault was made on Fort Sumter, by the National navy under Admiral Dupont. In July a National land force under General Quincy Adams Gillmore landed on Morris Island, and commenced besieging the works which defended Charleston harbor. Late in August, after a frightful bombardment of seven days, Fort Sumter was reported by Gillmore as being reduced to "a shapeless and harmless mass of ruins." It was not harmless, however, as it successfully bid defiance to the guns of the besieging forces until near the end of the war. Fort Wagner was evacuated by its Confederate garrison in September, 1863, after which it was taken possession of by the National troops. The siege of Charleston was continued for a year and a half longer.

Tennessee was the theater of important events during 1863. As the Army of the Potomac, under the successive commands of Hooker and Meade, and the Army of the Mississippi, under General Grant, one thousand miles distant from each other, occupied the attention of the Nation during the first half of the year, so the Army of the Cumberland, under General Rosecrans—the third great Union army during 1863—conducted the most important campaign during the last half of the year. As we have seen, that army won the great battle of Murfreesboro during the last day of 1862 and the first two days of 1863.

Before Rosecrans opened his campaign in the summer of 1863 there were frequent

raids, expeditions and reconnoissances of minor importance from both armies. Early in February, 1863, a Confederate detachment was repulsed in an assault upon Fort Donelson. Two thousand Union troops, under Colonel Coburn, were surrounded by a greatly superior force of Confederates under General Van Dorn at Spring Hill, March 5, and after a severe conflict more than two-thirds of Coburn's men were captured. Soon afterward a Union detachment under General Philip H. Sheridan drove Van Dorn back to his encampment on the Duck river. Two weeks later Colonel Hall, while on a reconnoissance, defeated the Confederate General John H. Morgan near Milton. Late in April, Colonel Streight led sixteen hundred Union troops on a raid into Northern Georgia, proceeding as far as Cedar Bluff, where he was compelled to surrender to the Confederate cavalry under Forrest.

After his great victory over Bragg at Murfreesboro, Rosecrans remained at that place until the latter part of June, 1863, while Bragg, after his defeat, retreated southward and posted his army at Tullahoma and along the Duck river. In the latter part of June, Rosecrans began a decisive campaign. After a series of conflicts, during a brief campaign of nine days, Bragg's army was compelled to retreat over the Cumberland Mountains, to Chattanooga, in the southeastern part of Tennessee. The Confederates erected strong fortifications at Chattanooga; but when Rosecrans approached, in August, and threatened Bragg's communications with the South, the Confederate army evacuated the city, which was taken possession of by a portion of Rosecrans' army on September 9.

Leaving a detachment to occupy Chattanooga, Rosecrans again pursued Bragg, who was now reinforced by General James Longstreet and his corps from Lee's army in Virginia, by some of General Joseph E. Johnston's troops from Mississippi, by General Simon Bolivar Buckner from East Tennessee, and by some of the Confederate troops who had been taken prisoners at

Vicksburg and Fort Hudson and paroled, thus increasing his army to seventy thousand men, while Rosecrans had only fifty-five thousand. The Confederate army, thus strengthened, suddenly attacked the pursuing army of Rosecrans at the Chickamauga creek, where a bloody battle was fought on September 19 and 20, 1863. The Confederates were victorious, and the National army was obliged to fall back and seek refuge behind the fortifications of Chattanooga, about ten miles from the battlefield. General Thomas' corps alone held its ground and saved the Union army from total annihilation. In this engagement General James A. Garfield, of Ohio, acquitted himself nobly. Rosecrans lost more than sixteen thousand men, and the Confederates more than eighteen thousand.

After his defeat in the battle of Chickamauga, Rosecrans was in a perilous situation. General Grant, who had just been intrusted with the command of all the National armies in the West east of the Mississippi, hastened to his relief, at the instance of the National government. Grant's previous command devolved on Sherman, while Rosecrans was superseded in his command by General George H. Thomas, who was soon reinforced by Sherman from Vicksburg and by Hooker from the Army of the Potomac, but the entire army was now under the direction of General Grant in person. Bragg weakened his army by sending Longstreet with his corps to besiege Burnside in Knoxville.

After being joined by Sherman and Hooker, Grant, in chief command of the Union army at Chattanooga, attacked Bragg's army, which was posted from the Tennessee river above Chattanooga, along Missionary Ridge, across the Chattanooga Valley and Lookout Mountain, and westward to the Tennessee river below the city. After driving the Confederates back from the river, south of Chattanooga, thus opening a free passage for his supplies, he prepared for a general advance against his foe, whom he attacked on November 23, 1863, whereupon a sanguinary conflict of three days

followed, known as the battle of Chattanooga.

The first day's fighting resulted in the capture of the strong Confederate works on Orchard Knob by General Thomas. The next day (November 24) Sherman siezed a position on the Confederate right, above Chattanooga, while on the left Hooker scaled the heights of Lookout Mountain, and after a struggle up its rugged sides, known as "the battle above the clouds," drove the Confederates from the summit. On the third day of the battle (November 25) Sherman opened the attack on Missionary Ridge, and finally the whole Union army scaled the steep mountain in the face of a deadly fire from the Confederates, who were driven from their intrenchments after the most obstinate resistance, thus raising the siege of Chattanooga and gaining a brilliant victory for the National army. Considering the natural strength of Bragg's position, the Union victory in this instance is almost without a parallel in history. The Union loss in killed and wounded was over five thousand. The Confederate loss in killed and wounded was less, but they lost more than six thousand as prisoners. Bragg's defeated and shattered army retreated into Georgia, and the whole of Tennessee fell into the possession of the National forces. Hooker pursued the fleeing foe and attacked them in a strong position at Ringgold, Georgia, November 27, and suffered great loss, but the enemy were forced to retreat.

In the spring of 1863 General Burnside was appointed to command the Union forces in East Tennessee, where he was joyfully welcomed by the Unionists of that region. He occupied Knoxville, September 1, the Confederates under General Buckner retreating on his approach, to join Bragg at Chattanooga. A few days later Burnside siezed Cumberland Gap with its Confederate garrison of two thousand men. About the middle of November, 1863, Burnside was besieged in Knoxville by General Longstreet, who had been sent with his corps from Bragg's army for the purpose of expelling the National forces from that quarter.

When Sherman came with troops for the relief of Burnside's beleaguered force, Longstreet, after being repulsed in a desperate assault, fled eastward and rejoined Lee's army in Virginia.

On the 20th of June, 1863, West Virginia was admitted into the Union as a State, by authority of an act passed by Congress on December 31, 1862. The military operations in this new State during 1863 were of minor importance, as the Confederate forces were driven from its soil, and they entered it again only as raiders. The last considerable action in West Virginia occurred in November, 1863, near the Greenbrier river; where the Confederates were defeated by a Union force under General William W. Averill.

In 1863 there were almost forty thousand men in the United States navy. Most of these were employed in squadrons to enforce the blockade of the Southern ports and assist the land forces of the Union, but many served in smaller squadrons and single ships watching in various quarters for Confederate privateers. The blockade was so effective that enormous prices were paid for cargoes in Southern ports, and some English merchants were tempted to build swift steamers for blockade running. During the year more than three hundred prizes, about one-third of which were steamers, were taken by the National navy. Late in February, the monitor *Montauk*, under Commander Warden, approached close to Fort McAllister and destroyed the Confederate privateer *Nashville*, which had been lying under the guns of the fort for several months, watching for an opportunity to run the blockade. The monitor *Weehawken*, under Captain Rodgers, captured the Confederate iron-clad ram *Atlanta* on the coast of Georgia, June 17, 1863. The ram had steamed down the Savannah river to attack the Union fleet, and was compelled to haul down her flag within fifteen minutes after the monitor opened fire.

Confederate privateers did much damage in 1863 among merchant vessels and among New England fishermen. Early in the

year the *Alabama* and the *Florida* cruised near the West Indies until the vigilance of Commodore Wilkes made that region uncomfortable for them. The *Alabama* continued her depredations in the South Atlantic, while the *Florida* boldly approached New York City, and then prowled on the track on the New York and Liverpool packets. The Confederates captured the schooner *Archer*, a fishing vessel, and anchored her off the harbor of Portland, Maine, and two boats' crews from the vessel rowed into the harbor, boarded the revenue cutter *Caleb Cushing*, overpowered her crew, and put to sea with her. The next day she was pursued by two merchant steamers, the *Forest City* and the *Chesapeake*, manned by soldiers and volunteers. As the steamers approached the revenue cutter the Confederates set her on fire, and attempted to escape in boats, but were soon captured. In December the *Chesapeake*, while on her way from New York to Portland, was seized by a party of Confederates who had boarded the vessel as passengers, but the captured vessel was pursued into a harbor of Nova Scotia by United States vessels and was soon restored to her owners by the Nova Scotia authorities.

The peace faction of the Democracy had been intensely active during 1863 and tried their utmost to make the war unpopular in the North. They denounced the war policy of the Administration, the emancipation of the negroes, the draft, arbitrary arrests and the suspension of the Habeas Corpus. Their conduct and actions caused the National authorities to resort to arbitrary arrests, the writ of Habeas Corpus having been suspended under the Constitutional provision for that purpose in time of rebellion. One of their prominent leaders, Clement L. Vallandigham, of Ohio, formerly a member of Congress, was arrested and sent into the Confederate lines, whence he went into exile in Canada. He was the peace candidate for Governor of Ohio in 1863, but was defeated by one hundred and one thousand majority by John Brough, a War Democrat, who was also supported by the Republicans.

During 1863 there were several calls for troops by the National government. The Confederate armies were recruited under the stringent conscription acts of the Confederate Congress. In the fall of 1863 President Lincoln issued an Amnesty Proclamation, pardoning such Confederates as returned to their allegiance, excepting the Secession leaders and such army and navy officers as had deserted the National flag. Under this Amnesty Proclamation efforts were made to establish Union State governments in Arkansas and Louisiana. The Unionists of the South were looked upon by the Confederates as traitors, and were consequently subjected to harsh and rigorous treatment, such as arbitrary arrest and imprisonment. President Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation was fiercely denounced in the Confederate Congress and throughout the South, and dire vengeance was threatened against slaves who deserted their masters or joined the Union armies. Nevertheless thousands of slaves entered the military service of the United States government.

On the 4th of March, 1863, the Thirty-seventh Congress closed its last session, after having adopted measures for the efficiency of the army. Steps were taken for the enlistment and organization of colored troops; and on March 3, 1863, a conscription act became a law. In May the President ordered a draft of three hundred thousand men. Much opposition was manifested against the draft, especially in New York City, where a terrible riot of three days occurred, July 13, 14 and 15, 1863, in which one hundred lives were lost and property to the value of two million dollars was destroyed. Many buildings were pillaged and burned, among them the Colored Orphan Asylum. The mob's fury was especially directed against colored people and their property. As the city militia had gone to aid in driving Lee from Pennsylvania, order was not restored for four days.

The progress of the National armies during the year 1863 had been very great. The Nation's birthday was signalized by the surrender of Helena and Vicksburg and Lee's

retreat from Gettysburg. The Confederates had been foiled in their invasions of Pennsylvania and the States north of the Ohio river. Missouri, Arkansas, Kentucky, Tennessee, large portions of Florida, Mississippi and Louisiana, and the control of the Rio Grande and Mississippi rivers, had been lost to the Confederates. The Union troops maintained a foothold in every seceded State, and the power of the Southern Confederacy was on the wane.

The year 1864 opened with many bright and promising hopes for the National cause. The National armies were strong and well disciplined, while the finances of the Republic were in a good condition. The Northern people were more united in the support of the Administration and in the determination to prosecute the war until the Union was restored. The National armies at the beginning of the year numbered about eight hundred thousand men. The Confederate armies consisted of about half that number.

On the 3d of February, 1864, General William Tecumseh Sherman with twenty-five thousand National troops started from Vicksburg on a destructive invasion of Mississippi, advancing eastward to Meridian, an important railroad centre, near the border of Alabama, destroying many miles of railroad, with its bridges, depots and rolling stock, and much other property, and liberating about ten thousand slaves. During his raid Sherman had frequent skirmishes with the Confederate troops under General Leonidas Polk, whose force was too feeble to offer any effective resistance. Sherman waited a week, expecting to be joined by a coöperating force under General William S. Smith from Memphis, Tennessee. Smith advanced as far southward as Columbus, Mississippi, also destroying much property, but when he found a large Confederate force under General Forrest ready to oppose him he returned to Memphis, carrying several thousand negroes with him. After burning Meridian, Sherman returned to Vicksburg.

Late in March, 1864, about five thousand Confederate cavalry under General Forrest made a rapid raid through Western Ten-

nessee and Kentucky to the Ohio river. Forrest captured Union City, Tennessee, with its garrison of almost five hundred men, on March 24; and the next day he attacked Paducah, Kentucky, but was repulsed by the Union garrison under Colonel Hicks. On April 12 Forrest assailed Fort Pillow, Tennessee. The fort was garrisoned by almost six hundred Union troops under Major Booth, almost half of whom were negroes. The garrison, aided by the gunboat *New Era*, commanded by Captain Marshall, successfully resisted the assailants, until Forrest, under cover of a flag of truce, secretly placed his troops in ravines near by, whence they carried the fort by assault. A frightful massacre followed. The Union troops threw down their arms and tried to escape, but were shot down. The slaughter was renewed the next day, until most of the garrison had been massacred.

A considerable National force under General Sturgis marched from Memphis in pursuit of Forrest, but was defeated by Forrest in the battle of Guntown, Mississippi, June 10, 1864, and compelled to retreat in great haste back to Memphis, a distance of about seventy-five miles. Another expedition, consisting of about twelve thousand National troops under General Andrew Jackson Smith, defeated Forrest at Tupelo, Mississippi, July 14, 1864. In August, Forrest made a raid into Memphis, but after siezing and destroying much property he was compelled to retreat. Later in the year there were Union raiding expeditions in Mississippi, as will be noticed.

Early in 1864 General Banks, who still commanded at New Orleans, organized an expedition, known as the *Red River Expedition*, for the invasion of Northwestern Louisiana. In this expedition Admiral Porter's fleet and a part of Sherman's army from Vicksburg under General Andrew Jackson Smith coöperated with Banks, as did also the National force under General Frederick Steele from Little Rock, Arkansas. The force under General Andrew J. Smith left Vicksburg early in March for the invasion of the Red River region of Louisiana, cap-

tured Fort de Russey on the 14th, and was then transported up the Red River to Alexandria, which he reached two days later, and which had already been taken possession of by Admiral Porter.

At Alexandria, Smith was joined by Banks with the main army of the expedition from New Orleans, and the united armies, twenty thousand strong, under the command of Banks, marched against Shreveport, while Admiral Porter sailed up the river to co-operate with Generals Banks and Andrew J. Smith in the operations against Shreveport, and against the Confederate forces under Generals E. Kirby Smith and Dick Taylor. The National forces had occasional skirmishes with the retreating Confederates, and Banks' advance was defeated by the Confederates under Dick Taylor at Sabine Cross-Roads, near Mansfield, Louisiana, on April 8, but on the same day another part of his army under General Emory repulsed the Confederates at Pleasant Grove. That night Banks fell back fifteen miles to Pleasant Hill, where he was joined by Smith, and where the united forces were fiercely assailed by the Confederates the next day, April 9, but won a victory. The victorious National army, however, continued its retreat toward Alexandria, but was again victorious at Cane River, April 21. The expedition reached Alexandria on April 27, and it was resolved to return to the Mississippi.

Banks' defeat at Sabine Cross-Roads also compelled Admiral Porter's fleet to return to Alexandria, but when it arrived the water had fallen so low that the vessels could not pass the rapids at that place. This difficulty was overcome by the engineering skill of Lieutenant-Colonel Joseph Bailey, of Wisconsin, who constructed dams in the channel of the river, thus raising the water high enough to enable the fleet to pass. In this Red River Expedition the National forces lost five thousand men, and the Confederates about as many more. Some of the Union gunboats and transports were destroyed, or fell into the possession of the Confederates before Admiral Porter returned to the Mississippi river.

About the time of General Banks' invasion of the Red River region of Louisiana, General Steele left Little Rock, Arkansas, with eight thousand Union troops to coöperate with the Red River expedition. He marched southward and was reinforced by General Thayer with the Army of the Frontier. The united forces drove back the Confederate forces under Price, Marmaduke and others, and captured Camden, Arkansas, on the Washita river, April 15, 1864. The loss of one of his trains and the news of the failure of the Red River expedition caused Steele to fall back. The Confederates, now largely reinforced, pursued him closely, and attacked him at Jenkins' Ferry, as he was crossing the Sabine river, but were repulsed with heavy loss, April 30, 1864. After suffering great losses, Steele returned to Little Rock.

The failure of the Red River expedition, and the retreat of Steele from Southern Arkansas, soon enabled the Confederate to recover almost absolute control of Arkansas, and guerrilla bands raided the State at will and awed into silence the Union people who had called a State convention to establish a Unionist State government in 1863. The old Confederate State Legislature was reconvened and it elected a Senator to represent the State in the Confederate States Senate at Richmond, September, 1864.

The condition of affairs in Arkansas so encouraged the Confederate forces in that State that they invaded Missouri in September, 1864, having been promised the aid of the secret organizations called the *Knights of the Golden Circle* and the "Sons of Liberty," but the contemplated rising of these secret associations was prevented by General Rosecrans, who then commanded in the Department of Missouri, and who, by arresting their leaders, so frightened the rest that when the Confederate forces invaded the State they found few recruits.

It was late in September, 1864, when almost twenty thousand Confederate troops, under Generals Price and Shelby, invaded Southeastern Missouri from Arkansas, and pushed on to Pilot Knob, where they at-

tacked a Union force under General Ewing, September 27, after which they rapidly advanced to the Missouri and turned westward toward Kansas, closely pursued by Union volunteers. After some lively encounters, Price was finally defeated near the Kansas border, by Union troops from Kansas under General Samuel R. Curtis, and by a pursuing body of National cavalry under General Pleasanton, October 23, 1864. The routed Confederates then fled southward in great disorder, hotly pursued by the victorious Union forces, and early in November escaped into Arkansas, with the loss of their artillery, trains and many prisoners. Thus ended the last Confederate invasion of Missouri.

During the summer of 1864 East Tennessee and Kentucky were kept in constant alarm by bands of guerrillas from Virginia who dashed upon isolated posts, devastated the surrounding region, and escaped before they could be overtaken. In June the noted guerrilla chief, John H. Morgan, who had in the meantime escaped from his captivity in Ohio, made a raid into Kentucky, mounted his followers on stolen horses, and proceeded as far as Lexington, but General Burbridge soon drove him back into Tennessee. Early in September, 1864, he was surprised at Greenville, in East Tennessee, and shot dead while trying to escape.

Early in 1864 General Gillmore, commanding the National army besieging Charleston, hearing that Florida was ready to return to the Union, sent an expedition under General Truman Seymour to recover that State. On February 5 Seymour left Port Royal, South Carolina, with about six thousand Union troops, and was transported up the St. John's river, Florida, to Jacksonville, of which he took possession on the 7th, after it had been evacuated by the Confederate troops under General Finnegan. Finnegan was pursued from place to place by Union troops, who captured cannon, stores and prisoners. Seymour marched westward toward the Suwannee river, but on February 20, 1864, his army was defeated and almost ruined in the bloody battle of Olustee, on the Florida Central Railroad.

Seymour abandoned his project and returned to Jacksonville, after losing two thousand men, and burned stores valued at a million dollars. About the same time the National fleet under Admiral Bailey destroyed important salt works on the Florida coast, valued at three million dollars. During the summer there were some raids in Florida, but very little was done toward the restoration of the State to the Union.

Early in 1864 the Confederates renewed their efforts to drive the National troops out of North Carolina, especially as it now seemed apparent that the people of that State desired to return to the Union. On February 1 a Confederate force under General Pickett menaced Newbern and destroyed a Union gunboat there. Plymouth, near the mouth of the Roanoke river, with sixteen hundred Union troops under General Wessells, surrendered to a Confederate force under General Hoke, assisted by the ram *Albemarle*, February 20, 1864, the day of the battle of Olustee, in Florida. Washington, at the head of Pamlico Sound, was evacuated by a Union force under General Palmer, April 28, 1864. General Hoke demanded the surrender of Newbern, but after the ram *Albemarle* had been driven up the Roanoke river in a severe fight with the *Saccatus*, the Confederates raised the siege of Newbern, and Hoke was called to Virginia to aid in the defense of Richmond. Six months later, on a dark night, October 27, 1864, Lieutenant William B. Cushing, of the National navy, with thirteen men, in a steam launch, in the face of a murderous fire upon them, destroyed the *Albemarle* with a torpedo in the Roanoke river, at Plymouth. Four days later, October 31, 1864, the Union troops reoccupied Plymouth. Afterward there was much skirmishing between Union raiders and Confederate detachments.

Early in 1864 guerrilla parties siezed Union trains of considerable value in Virginia and West Virginia. About the middle of January a body of National cavalry under General William W. Averill destroyed thirty miles of the Virginia and Tennessee

Railway west of Lynchburg. On March 1 one of the boldest exploits of the war was performed by General Judson Kilpatrick, who, with five thousand National cavalry from the Army of the Potomac, had made a raid around General Lee's right flank, dashed into the outer defenses of Richmond, with the view of liberating the Union prisoners confined in Libby Prison and those in Belle Isle, in the James river; but Kilpatrick was obliged to retire. The next day, March 2, 1864, Colonel Ulric Dahlgren, with a part of Kilpatrick's force, appeared before Richmond at another point, but was repulsed and himself killed, while many of his followers were either killed or taken prisoners. A few days later another National cavalry force under General Custer, a very young officer, made a raid in the direction of Charlottesville, in the Shenandoah Valley.

In the meantime the National government had been making preparations for the final struggle. In February, 1864, General Grant was placed in chief command of the Union armies with the title of Lieutenant-General, a title hitherto borne only by Washington and Scott. Grant established his headquarters in the field with the Army of the Potomac. Now, for the first time, the National armies were moved in obedience to a single will, and were persistently directed to the achievement of a single end. Thus far in the war there had been little concert of action on the part of the National armies, so that while one was prosecuting a campaign with vigor the others were frequently inactive, thus leaving the Confederates free to concentrate upon the point of attack, and giving them, with a smaller force in the field, practically superior numbers. Grant resolved to wrest this advantage from them, by simultaneously attacking them in the East and in the West.

The bulk of the Confederate forces were concentrated east of the Mississippi into two large armies. Lee's army in Virginia occupied the south bank of the Rapid Anna, covering and defending Richmond. General Joseph E. Johnston's army in Northern

Georgia was intrenched at Dalton, covering and defending Atlanta, the great railroad center and depot of Confederate supplies. So thoroughly had the Confederate States been stripped of men and means to raise and equip their armies already in the field that if these two great armies should be captured or destroyed it would be impossible to supply their places and the Confederates would be obliged to submit.

The months of March and April were spent in the reorganization of the Union armies and preparing them for the coming campaign. The Army of the Potomac, still under the immediate command of General Meade, was assigned the duty of destroying Lee's army and reducing the Confederate capital. The Army of the Potomac as reorganized was divided into three corps, as follows: The Second corps, under General Winfield Scott Hancock; the Fifth corps, under General Gouverneur K. Warren, and the Sixth corps, under General John Sedgwick. The Army of the Potomac was further augmented by the old Ninth corps, under General Burnside, thus raising the army to over a hundred thousand men. The cavalry was commanded by General Philip H. Sheridan.

Two other Union armies in Virginia co-operated with the Army of the Potomac in the movement on Richmond—namely, the army under General Franz Sigel, in the Shenandoah Valley, sixteen thousand strong; and the Army of the James, under General Butler, from Fortress Monroe, thirty thousand strong. Thus three National armies were acting in concert for the reduction of the Confederate capital.

The Confederate army, under General Lee—known as the *Army of Northern Virginia*—numbering about sixty thousand men, was also divided into three corps, under the respective commands of Generals Longstreet, Ewell and A. P. Hill. This army then lay strongly intrenched behind Mine Run, in Orange county, Virginia.

Three Union armies were united under the command of General William Tecumseh Sherman, in Northern Georgia, to oppose

the Confederate army under General Joseph E. Johnston. These three Union armies thus united were the Army of the Cumberland, under General Thomas, over sixty thousand strong; the Army of the Tennessee, under General McPherson, over twenty-five thousand strong, and the Army of the Ohio, under General Schofield, almost fourteen thousand strong, thus making a total force of almost a hundred thousand men.

The Confederate army under Johnston, then behind strong fortifications at Dalton, numbered fifty-five thousand men, and consisted of three corps, commanded respectively by Generals Hardee, Hood and Polk. The last named was Bishop Leonidas Polk, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, a man most highly esteemed.

On the 3d of May, 1864, Lieutenant-General Grant, from his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac, issued an order for the Army of the Potomac, under the immediate command of General Meade, and General William T. Sherman's army in Northern Georgia, to commence operations against the Confederate armies opposed to them.

On the morning of May 4 the Army of the Potomac crossed the Rapid Anna, and the next day it was fiercely assailed by Lee's whole army in the Wilderness, near the old Chancellorsville battle-field, in a tract covered with a dense undergrowth of pine, cedars, oaks and tangled underbrush, where neither artillery nor cavalry could be brought into action, and where no man could see, only knowing by the sharp crackling of musketry and by the cheers on one side or the other how the conflict was progressing. Here a sanguinary conflict, known as the battle of the Wilderness, raged for two days, May 5 and 6, 1864, without any decisive result, at the close of which Lee retreated behind his intrenchments. On the Union side General James L. Wadsworth was killed and General Webb was wounded. On the Confederate side Generals Jones and Jenkins were killed and General Longstreet was wounded.

The Army of the Potomac, under Grant's direction, then attempted to flank Lee's



GENERAL PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

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army, which was behind strong intrenchments at Spottsylvania Court House, prepared to resist Grant's advance. The Union advance was led by General Warren. Some skirmishing occurred on May 9, 1864, when General Sedgwick was killed by a Confederate sharpshooter, and the command of his corps, the Sixth, was assigned to General Wright. The following day, May 10, 1864, a furious battle raged all day, with dreadful loss on both sides. The next morning Grant sent the following dispatch to the Secretary of War: "I propose to fight it out on this line, if it takes all summer." On the 12th another bloody engagement occurred, when Hancock broke through the Confederate lines and gained a great advantage and held it. The conflict



GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT HANCOCK.

only ceased at midnight, when Lee retired behind his second line of intrenchments and was apparently as strong as ever. In the course of eight days the Army of the Potomac had lost thirty thousand men.

Grant again attempted to flank Lee, and the Confederates sallied out from their intrenchments on May 19, 1864, when another fierce struggle ensued, ending in the repulse of Lee's troops, but with fearful loss on the Union side. Thus far in the campaign the Army of the Potomac had lost forty thousand men. Lee had lost about thirty thousand. On the 20th Grant proceeded to flank Lee, who thereupon fell

back toward Richmond. On the 23d the Army of the Potomac arrived at the North Anna, finding Lee's army on the opposite side of the stream. A heavy battle ensued, and the National army effected a passage, but the Confederates were so strongly posted that Grant returned to the north side of the stream, moved down the Pamunky, which he crossed at Hanover town, after which he advanced toward the Chickahominy. Heavy battles were fought on May 28 and 29, when Grant made another flank movement around Lee's new intrenched position.

At Cold Harbor, Grant's progress was again arrested; and, after some slight efforts to carry the Confederate works, Grant made a general assault upon Lee's strong position on June 3, 1864, but was repulsed with terrific slaughter, losing ten thousand men in killed and wounded in the course of twenty minutes, while the Confederate loss was but little more than one thousand. The Confederates were repulsed in assaults upon Grant that night and the next day and night. Finding Lee's position too strong to be carried by storm, and too near the defenses of Richmond to be flanked, Grant led the Army of the Potomac across the Chickahominy and James rivers, June 12—15, 1864, thus compelling Lee to fall back to the defenses of Richmond. In this bloody campaign Grant lost sixty thousand men. Lee's loss was much less, as in most cases his troops fought behind intrenchments, while the National troops were the attacking party.

In the meantime Grant had sent out cavalry expeditions under Generals J. H. Wilson and Philip H. Sheridan in various directions to destroy railroads and to cut off all communication with the Confederate capital. When the battle of Spottsylvania Court House began General Sheridan with a picked body of cavalry made a raid in Lee's rear, crossing the North Anna, destroying many miles of railroad, recapturing about four hundred Union prisoners on their way to Richmond; and approaching the Confederate capital, May 11, 1864, he encountered and defeated the Confederate cavalry under General J. E. B. Stuart, who was himself killed.

The death of this able and dashing cavalry leader was a great loss to the Confederates and was sincerely lamented. After carrying the outer defenses of Richmond, Sheridan was obliged to withdraw. He returned by way of the White House, on the Pamunky river, to the Army of the Potomac, after an absence of but little over two weeks, in time to take part in the battle of Cold Harbor, on June 3.

On the night that Grant with the Army of the Potomac crossed the Rapid Anna, May 4, 1864, the Army of the James under General Butler, thirty thousand strong, embarked on Admiral Lee's gunboats at Fortress Monroe, and was thus conveyed up the James river to Bermuda Hundred, on the south side of the river, where the army landed the next day, May 5, 1864, and fortified the place. The Army of the James consisted of a corps under General William F. Smith and a corps under General Gillmore recently brought from South Carolina. About the middle of May, Butler advanced toward Richmond, approaching Drury's Bluff and gaining some of the outworks of Fort Darling. Simultaneously with Butler's movement up the James, General Kautz with five thousand National cavalry started from Suffolk on a raid, tearing up the railways south and west of Petersburg, while fifteen hundred National cavalry moved up the James and took post opposite City Point.

In the meantime the Confederate authorities at Richmond had summoned Beauregard from Charleston to aid in the defense of Richmond. On May 16, under cover of a dense fog, Beauregard attacked Butler and drove him back behind the intrenchments of Bermuda Hundred with the loss of four thousand men. The Confederate loss was about three thousand. Beauregard was afterward repulsed in several assaults upon Butler's fortifications at Bermuda Hundred. Butler remained at Bermuda Hundred, and Smith's corps was taken from him to aid the Army of the Potomac at Cold Harbor.

Butler's movements enabled Grant to place the Army of the Potomac on the south

side of the James river, and to lay siege to Petersburg, an important city on the Appomattox river, twenty miles south of Richmond. The Confederates had strongly fortified Petersburg, as they considered the defense of that town essential to the safety of Richmond. Lee, with the greater part of his army, took a position to defend Petersburg against the Armies of the Potomac and the James; and for the next ten months both Richmond and Petersburg sustained the most vigorous siege. Grant established his headquarters at City Point, where the Appomattox empties into the James.

During the latter half of June and throughout July and August, 1864, Grant prosecuted the siege of Petersburg with vigor. On June 16 the corps of Warren, Hancock and Burnside assailed Petersburg and advanced their lines at heavy cost. A force under General Terry, sent out by Butler to hold the railway, was driven back by Longstreet and Pickett. On June 18 the National forces made a fruitless assault on Petersburg with heavy loss. Unsuccessful flank movements were made by the Union forces to seize the Weldon railroad, June 22 and 23, the flanking columns being attacked and driven back by the Confederate corps under General A. P. Hill, the Union forces losing four thousand men, mostly prisoners. At the same time the National cavalry under Generals Wilson and Kautz destroyed the Weldon railway at Reams' Station, and then destroyed over twenty miles of the Lynchburg railway. Wilson and Kautz went as far west as the Staunton river, and were obliged to fight their way back, the Confederates capturing their cannon, train and nearly a thousand of their troops. In the latter part of June, Butler and Hancock took up an intrenched position north of the James river, at Deep Bottom, above Malvern Hill, and held that position in spite of the most vigorous opposition.

On the 30th of July a mine which the Union troops had dug under one of the strongest of the Confederate works was exploded with terrific effect, and in an instant a six-gun fort, with its garrison of three

hundred men, was blown into the air, but the assault on Petersburg, which immediately followed, was disastrously repulsed. Birney and Hancock, with Gregg's cavalry, threatened Richmond from Deep Bottom, and fought the Confederates, August 13 and 16, and Hancock destroyed the Weldon railroad at Reams' Station. On August 18, General Warren seized the Weldon railroad, losing a thousand men in the struggle, and intrenched his corps there. Four desperate efforts made by the Confederates to retake this important railroad were defeated, August 19, 20, 21 and 25, 1864. On September 29 General Butler stormed and captured Fort Harrison, north of the James river. Another effort to extend the Union lines southwest of Petersburg brought on a severe engagement at Hatcher's Run, October 27, 1864, in which the National troops were repulsed and driven back to their intrenchments before Petersburg.

While conducting the siege of Petersburg, by heavy blows upon the Confederate lines north and south of the James river by turns, by menacing one point and assailing another, and by sending out various cavalry expeditions, Grant kept Lee constantly occupied. Lee, by his skillful generalship, repelled every effort of Grant to obtain possession of Petersburg and Richmond, but he failed in every effort to break through the Union lines and to divert the attention of the Union commander-in-chief, who constantly drew his lines more closely and securely around the Army of the Northern Virginia and the capital of the Southern Confederacy.

The siege of Petersburg from its commencement to the close of 1864—a period of six months and a half—cost the Union forces almost forty thousand men, and the Confederates about only half that number. Thus the entire campaign from the battles of the Wilderness and Spottsylvania Court House to the siege of Petersburg inclusive cost the National forces about a hundred thousand men, and the Confederates about fifty thousand. But Grant had greater resources to draw from, and while his losses were

constantly replenished by frequent reinforcements, Lee saw his own army wearing away faster than it could be replenished.

The National force in the Shenandoah Valley and West Virginia, under General Franz Sigel, acting in coöperation with the Armies of the Potomac and the James, began its campaign on May 1, 1864. Sigel sent a detachment under General Crook, with a cavalry force under General Averill, into the Kanawha Valley, in West Virginia. Sigel himself marched up the Shenandoah Valley, and was routed by the Confederates near Newmarket, May 15, 1864. Sigel was superseded in his command by General David Hunter, who defeated the Confederates at Piedmont, near Staunton, June 5, 1864. After being joined by Crook and Averill, Hunter threatened Lynchburg, but was obliged to retreat into West Virginia.

The way to the Potomac being now clear, General Lee resolved upon a third invasion of the North, hoping thus to compel Grant to raise the siege of Petersburg and Richmond. With this end in view, Lee sent General Jubal Early with fifteen thousand men down the Shenandoah Valley. Early drove the few National troops in the Shenandoah Valley across the Potomac and pursued them into Maryland. This third invasion of Maryland again caused intense alarm and excitement in the North, especially when Baltimore and Washington were threatened and all communication by railroad and telegraph was cut off between the National capital and the Northern States.

Washington was utterly defenseless, and the Northern States sent troops to protect it, while Grant sent General Wright's corps from the Army of the Potomac for the same purpose, and other Union troops hastened to repel the invaders. On July 9, 1864, Early defeated a few National troops under General Lewis Wallace, on the Monocacy river, near Frederick, after which Early sent a body of cavalry toward Baltimore and cut off communication between that city and the North, while he himself marched toward Washington and cut off that city from the North also. After some skirmishing before

the National capital, the Confederates recrossed the Potomac into Virginia, on the night of July 12, carrying with them a large amount of plunder.

Early's force was pursued across the Potomac by the National troops under General Wright, who defeated him on the Shenandoah river, on July 19. The next day a National force under General Averill defeated a Confederate detachment near Winchester. The Confederates routed the National troops under General Crook, July 24, 1864, driving them across the Potomac into Maryland, and pursuing them across the river. A force of about three hundred Confederate cavalry under General McCausland made a raid northward, to Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania, and burned two-thirds of that town on July 30, 1864, after their demand for a contribution of half a million dollars in gold had not been complied with. This Confederate force at once retired into Virginia, pursued by the National cavalry under General Averill, who routed the daring raiders at Moorefield with heavy loss in artillery, trains and prisoners.

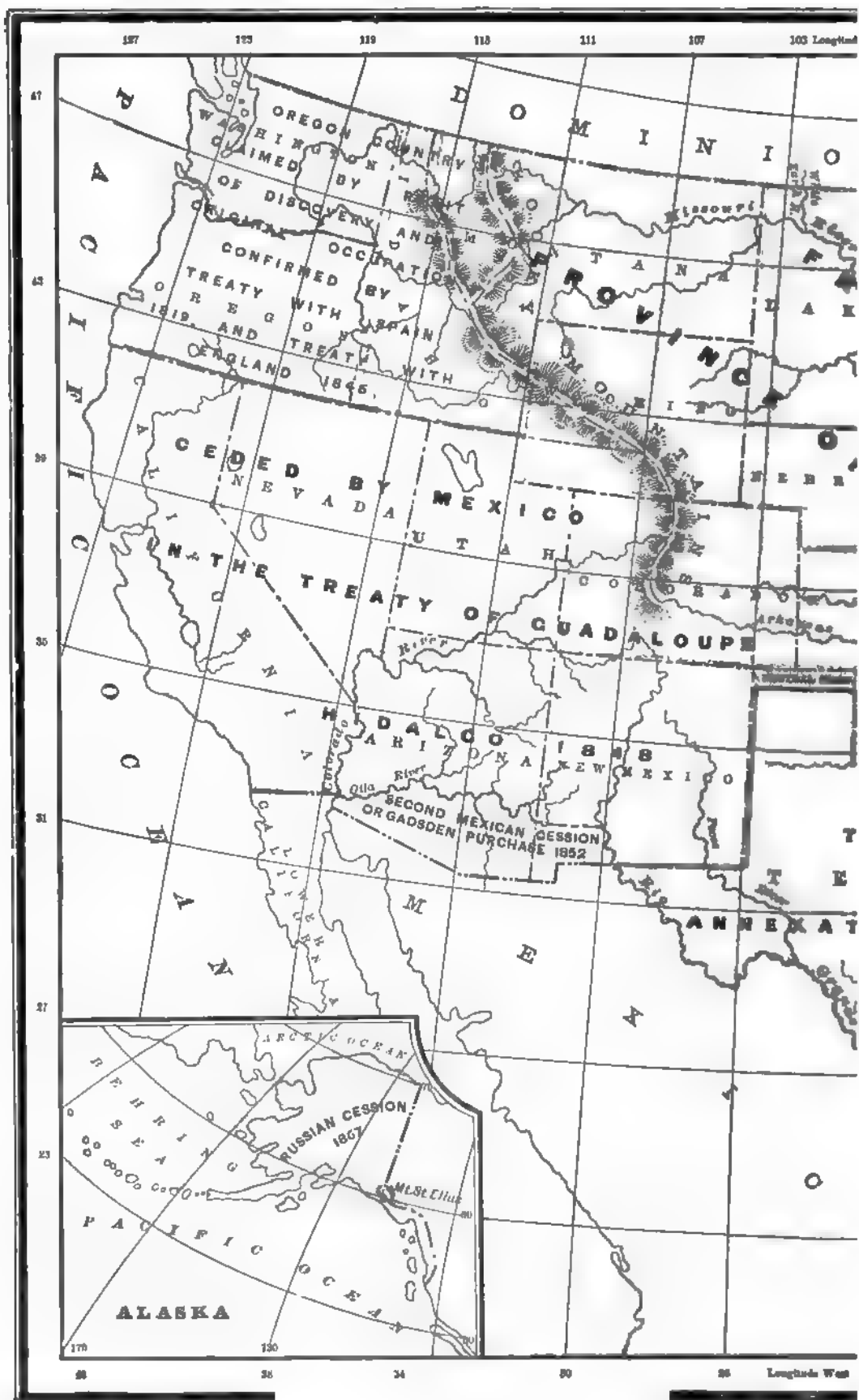
The National authorities in Washington now sent the Sixth and Ninth corps against Early in the Shenandoah Valley, where they were joined by Hunter's troops; and the entire force, thirty thousand strong, was placed under the command of General Philip H. Sheridan. Early's army numbered about twenty thousand men. On September 19, 1864, Sheridan attacked Early and gained a brilliant victory over him, near Winchester, driving him from the field. Early retreated behind earthworks at Fisher's Hill, near Strasburg, where he was attacked by the pursuing Sheridan, who gained another signal victory, on September 22, 1864. Early was driven farther up the valley. Four thousand Confederates were taken prisoners. After sending Early thus "whirling up the valley," as Sheridan himself expressed it, the victor pursued as far as Staunton, and on his return he swept the valley—which had been a great storehouse and granary for the Confederate armies in

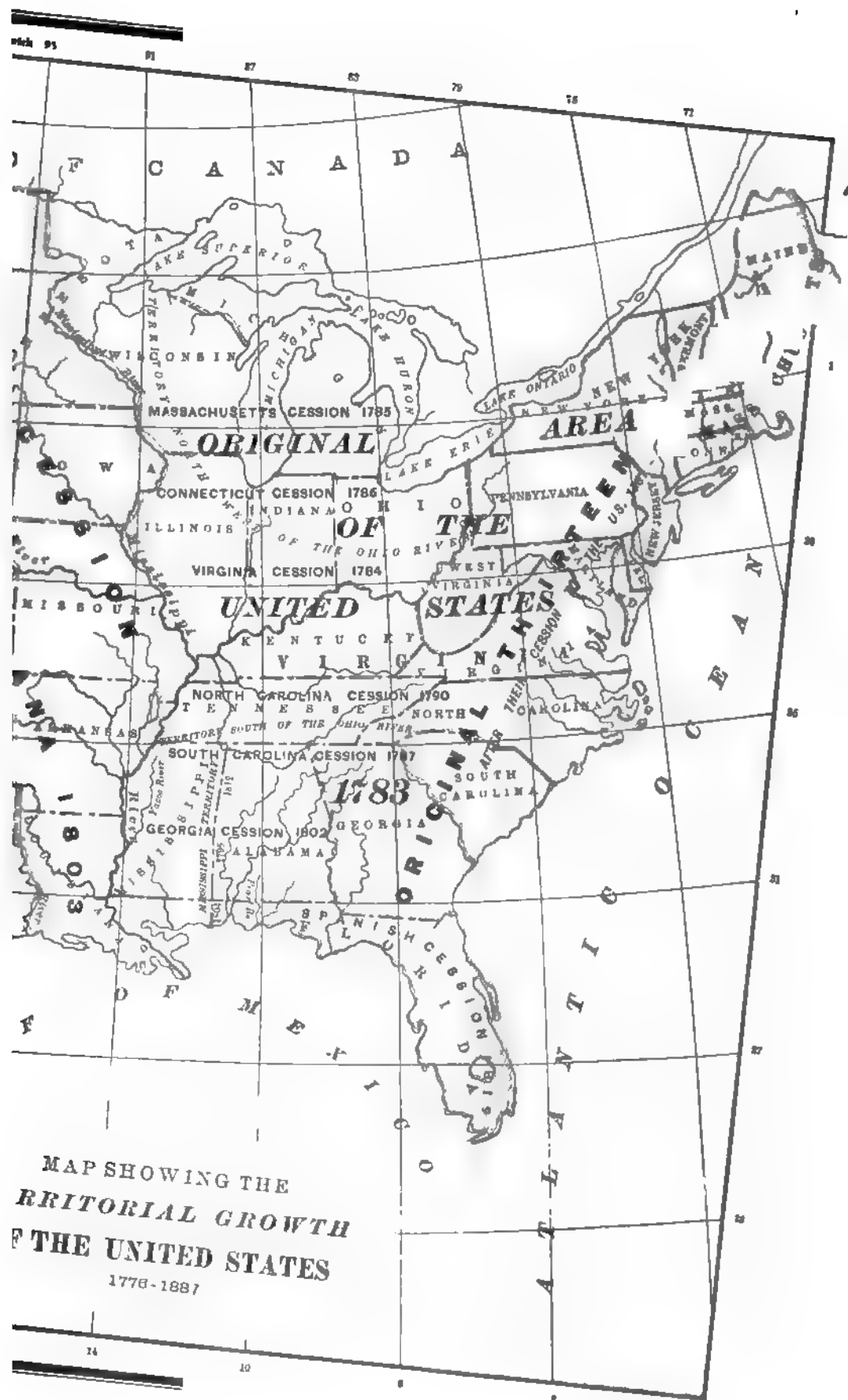
Virginia—of cattle, crops, and everything that could be of use to those armies.

After being reinforced, Early again advanced down the valley, and, after several minor actions, he suddenly attacked Sheridan's army at Cedar Creek, on the morning of October 19, 1864, while Sheridan was absent. In their furious onset, the Confederates swept over the Union intrenchments and drove the Union troops four miles in a short time. The retreat was for a time checked by General Wright, who was temporarily in command, and who made great efforts to stem the tide of disaster. Just at that moment, Sheridan, who, on his ride "from Winchester twenty miles away," hearing the sound of battle, came in hot haste to the scene of action, "dashed down the line amid a storm of huzzas, and the wave of retreat checked its course there, because the sight of the master compelled it pause." Thus Sheridan, by his voice and presence, infused such confidence in his disheartened troops that he turned defeat into victory, almost annihilating Early's army. The Confederates, in their flight, abandoned everything they had gained and captured early in the day, besides many cannon and much camp equipage. The victorious National army lost three thousand men, while the Confederate loss was greater. After this great victory Sheridan held the Shenandoah Valley under complete control.

While Generals Grant and Sheridan had been thus conducting the war in Virginia, General William Tecumseh Sherman, with the combined Armies of the Cumberland, the Tennessee and the Ohio, a hundred thousand strong, was conducting a memorable campaign against General Joseph E. Johnston's Confederate army of fifty-five thousand men, in Northern Georgia, for the possession of Atlanta, the great railroad center and depot of Confederate supplies.

In accordance with Lieutenant-General Grant's order, Sherman moved from the vicinity of Chattanooga on May 6, 1864, on his march against Atlanta. Sherman's course lay through a country full of mountains, ravines and rivers. As Dalton, where







1. *Chlorophyll a* and *Chlorophyll b* contents were determined by spectrophotometry using the method of Lichtenthal and Whistler (1987).

Hood invaded Tennessee with an army of about forty thousand men. On his approach Thomas retreated to Nashville. Hood pursued, fought an indecisive battle with a part of Thomas' army under General Schofield at Franklin, on November 30, and then laid siege to Nashville. On December 15, 1864, Thomas sallied out of the city and attacked the besiegers. The next day he renewed the attack, and in a bloody battle he completely annihilated Hood's army. Nearly the whole of Hood's artillery was captured



GENERAL GEORGE H. THOMAS.

by the victorious National troops; and Hood, with a small remnant of his army, fled south into Alabama. Thomas pursued his vanquished foe for several days, capturing many prisoners. In this campaign Hood lost twenty thousand men, and Thomas ten thousand.

A Confederate detachment under General John C. Breckinridge entered East Tennessee to act in concert with Hood in his invasion of Middle Tennessee, but was driven back into Southwestern Virginia, toward Wytheville, in December, by the National cavalry under General George Stoneman, who had recently been exchanged. Another Confederate detachment under General Forrest was repulsed in an attack on Murfreesboro', a few days Hood's defeat at Nashville.

After destroying all his storehouses and public property, everything that could be of any use to an army, Sherman finally abandoned Atlanta on November 14, 1864, on

which day he cut his telegraphic communications with the North, and for some time was heard from only through Confederate newspapers. He thus commenced his grand march through Georgia for the Atlantic coast, with an army of sixty-five thousand men, which moved in two grand divisions, the right wing being led by General Oliver O. Howard, the left by General Henry W. Slocum, and the five thousand cavalry by General Kilpatrick, who hovered in the front and on the flanks of the army and met squadrons of Confederate cavalry in several encounters. No opposition was made to his progress, and the appeals of General Beauregard, then the Confederate commander in that department, who called upon the Georgians to rise and oppose Sherman's march, were made in vain. Ten thousand negroes joined Sherman's army during its march and accompanied it to the coast. Sherman's march was through the heart of Georgia. By threatening different points he skillfully masked his designs and prevented any considerable numbers of the Confederates from gathering to oppose him. He captured Milledgeville, the capital of the State, on November 29. General Hazen took Fort McAllister, on the Ogeechee river, near Savannah, by storm, on December 13, and opened communications with the National fleet on the coast about a month after he left Atlanta.

Finally, on December 21, 1864, Sherman took military possession of Savannah, which, on his approach, had been evacuated by its garrison of fifteen thousand Confederate troops under General Hardee, who fled toward Charleston, after destroying what public property they could, including two iron-clads and other vessels in the river. Sherman offered Savannah as a "Christmas gift to the Nation." He remained there six weeks, thus giving his army a rest after their march of two hundred and fifty-five miles, covering a period of about six weeks. As Sherman approached Savannah, General John G. Foster, who commanded the Union forces in that region, made important co-operative movements and occupied strong



FARRAGUT AT MOBILE.

positions on the railway between Savannah and Charleston, after Hardee had fled from the former to the latter city.

While Sherman was marching through Georgia, Union cavalry expeditions made destructive raids through Mississippi to co-operate with him by attracting attention from his march. Thus General Dana made a raid from Vicksburg to Jackson, fought a Confederate force on the Big Black river, and destroyed the railway and much other property. General Davidson made a raid from Baton Rouge, Louisiana, through Southern Mississippi and threatened Mobile. General Grierson made a raid from Memphis, Tennessee, through Northern Mississippi and Alabama, destroyed many miles of the Mobile and Ohio Railway, destroyed many stores and much property, routed a Confederate force, and then raided through Mississippi to Vicksburg.

While Grant and Sherman were conducting the sieges of Petersburg and Atlanta respectively, important events were occurring near Mobile. On August 5, 1864, a National fleet of eighteen vessels, four of them iron-clads, the rest wooden vessels, appeared off the entrance to Mobile bay, while a National land force under General Gordon Granger landed on Dauphin Island to co-operate with the fleet, having been sent from New Orleans for that purpose by General Canby.

Early the same day, August 5, 1864, Farragut's fleet sailed into Mobile bay, boldly running past Forts Gaines and Morgan, the former on Dauphin Island, the latter on Mobile Point. Farragut's vessels were lashed in pairs, and the Admiral directed the movements of his fleet from the main-top of his flag-ship, the *Hartford*. The fire from the forts had been ineffectual, but one of Farragut's iron-clads, the *Tecumseh*, was sunk by a torpedo. The Confederate fleet, consisting of the iron-clad ram *Tennessee* and a number of gunboats, steamed swiftly down the bay and made a dash at the Union fleet. A short but furious naval battle ensued, resulting in a brilliant victory for Farragut, the ram *Tennessee*

being captured, with the Confederate Admiral, Franklin Buchanan, who was severely wounded.

Farragut then shelled Fort Gaines, compelling it to surrender on August 7. Granger's troops were then transferred to Mobile Point. Farragut and Granger bombarded Fort Morgan, which they compelled to surrender on August 23, after throwing about three thousand shells into the fort. With these two forts the victorious Unionists captured almost fifteen hundred prisoners and one hundred and four cannon. Besides the iron-clad *Tecumseh*, the victors lost over three hundred men. By these National victories the port of Mobile was effectually closed against blockade-runners, and the only port still left open to the Confederates was Wilmington, North Carolina.

We have already alluded to the building of Confederate vessels in England and the damage they inflicted upon American commerce. These vessels were built by Laird, a ship-builder at Liverpool and a member of British Parliament, and by other British ship-builders. In 1864 three other large cruisers were built in England for the Confederates—the *Tallahassee*, the *Olustee* and the *Chickamauga*. The *Tallahassee* destroyed more than thirty vessels on the coasts of the Northern States.

But the British government now protested to the Confederate authorities against the building of any more Confederate privateers in England. On April 1, 1864, Lord Lyons, the British minister at Washington, by permission of the United States government, forwarded to Jefferson Davis a letter from Lord John Russell, the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, which contained the following: "Under these circumstances, Her Majesty's government protests and remonstrates against any further efforts being made on the part of the so-called Confederate States, or the authorities or agents thereof, to build, or cause to be built, or to purchase, or cause to be purchased, any such vessels as those styled 'rams,' or any other vessels to be used for war purposes against the United States, or against any country with

which the United Kingdom is at peace or on terms of amity; and Her Majesty's government further protests and remonstrates against all acts in violation of the neutrality laws of the realm."

These words from the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs aroused the indignation of the Confederate leaders to the highest pitch; and Jefferson Davis instructed one of his assistants (Burton N. Harrison) to reply that it "would be inconsistent with the dignity of the position he (Davis) fills as Chief Magistrate of a nation comprising a population of more than twelve millions, occupying a territory many times larger than the United Kingdom, and possessing resources unsurpassed by those of any other country on the face of the globe, to allow the attempt of Earl Russell to ignore the actual existence of the Confederate States, and to contemptuously style them 'so-called,' to pass without a remonstrance. The President, therefore, does protest and remonstrate against this studied insult; and he instructs me to say that in future any document in which it may be repeated will be returned unanswered and unnoticed." The same scribe added: "Were, indeed, Her Majesty's government sincere in a desire and a determination to maintain neutrality, the President would not but feel that they would neither be just nor gallant to allow the subjugation of a nation like the Confederate States, by such a barbarous, despotic race as are now attempting it."

The *Alabama*, already alluded to, had captured more than sixty American merchantmen, and had eluded pursuit for nearly two years. In June, 1864, the *Alabama*, under the command of Captain Raphael Semmes, was cruising in the English Channel and ran into the French port of Cherbourg. She was pursued by the *Kearsarge*, a National vessel commanded by Captain John A. Winslow. Captain Semmes challenged Captain Winslow to fight, and the challenge was accepted. The combat took place on Sunday, June 19, 1864, off Cherbourg, and the neighboring shore was lined with spectators who witnessed the fight.

After an hour's mutual cannonade, the *Alabama* was disabled and in a sinking condition, whereupon she surrendered and in twenty minutes sunk. None of the *Kearsarge's* crew were killed, and but one was mortally wounded. The crew of the *Alabama* were rescued by the *Kearsarge* and a French vessel, but Captain Semmes and his officers were rescued and conveyed to England by the *Deerhound*, belonging to one of the British aristocracy named Lancaster, who took them to his own country so that they might not be made prisoners of war. Nearly thirty years later (February 2, 1894) the *Kearsarge* was wrecked on Roncadore Reef, in the West Indies.

The Confederate cruiser *Georgia* was captured by the *Niagara*, commanded by Commodore Craven, off Portugal, August 15, 1864; and the *Florida*, another Confederate cruiser, was captured by the *Wachusett*, commanded by Commander Collins, at Bahia, Brazil, October 7, 1864.

Many Confederates proceeded to Canada, where, with the aid of sympathizers in the British provinces and in the Northern States, they formed various schemes against the United States government and the Northern people. One of these schemes was a plot to liberate several thousand Confederate prisoners on Johnson's Island, in Lake Erie. Another was to release the eight thousand Confederate prisoners in Camp Douglas, at Chicago, and make a raid through the Western States. These schemes were foiled by the vigilance of the National authorities. In October, 1864, a gang of armed men made a raid from Canada into the village of St. Albans, Vermont, fired upon the defenseless people, wounding some, robbed the banks, and then escaped on stolen horses to Canada. In November, 1864, Confederate emissaries set fire to some hotels and theaters in New York City; but the fires were soon extinguished.

At the beginning of July, 1864, Secretary Chase resigned, whereupon the President appointed William Pitt Fessenden, of Maine, to the post of Secretary of the Treasury. The new Secretary was a member of the

United States Senate, both before and after his membership in Lincoln's Cabinet. Mr. Chase was appointed Chief Justice of the United States, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Chief Justice Taney, in 1862. Another change in the President's Cabinet in 1864 was the succession of Montgomery Blair, of Maryland, as Postmaster General by William Denison, of Ohio. On July 18, 1864, President Lincoln ordered a draft of five hundred thousand men.

President Lincoln appointed Sunday, September 11, 1864, as a day of National thanksgiving for the recent National victories before Atlanta and Mobile and minor successes elsewhere; and the Union people of the country generally complied with the President's request.

At the close of 1864 the National armies numbered six hundred thousand men, and the Confederate armies three hundred and fifty thousand. About two hundred thousand of the emancipated slaves were enlisted in the National armies.

On the 31st of October, 1864, Nevada was admitted into the Union as a State. While the war was raging on sea and land during the summer and fall of 1864, the people of the States still loyal to the Union were agitated by an exciting Presidential campaign. The policy of the Administration in regard to the war and the question of emancipation had been sustained by the Republican party generally and also by the War Democracy. It was only opposed by Anti-war Democracy as wrong and useless, that faction maintaining that the war was a failure; that the seceded States could never be conquered; that emancipation was wrong, and that measures should be taken for a peaceful restoration of the Union with slavery as it existed. The extreme radical wing of the Republican party were dissatisfied with the conservative policy of the Administration and denounced it for being too slow, having maintained that emancipation should have been resorted to at the beginning of the war.

The radicals were first in the field. In a Radical National Convention which as-

sembled at Cleveland, Ohio, May 31, 1864, remaining in session several days, General John C. Fremont was nominated for President, with John Cochrane, of New York, for Vice-President, and a platform was adopted calling for a most radical policy in the prosecution of the war and the treatment of slavery.

A few days later, June 7, 1864, a Union National Convention, representing the Republicans and the War Democrats, assembled in Baltimore, and remained in session several days, during which it unanimously renominated President Lincoln for reëlection, and named Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee—the Military Governor of that State, the sturdy Union leader and War Democrat of the South—for Vice-President. This convention adopted a platform sustaining the Administration in its prosecution of the war for the maintenance of the Union, and upholding its position on the abolition of slavery.

Nearly three months later, August 29, 1864, the Anti-war Democracy met in a National Convention in Chicago, with Governor Horatio Seymour, of New York, as Chairman, remaining in session several days. A prominent leader in this convention was Clement L. Vallandigham, of Ohio, who, with George H. Pendleton, of the same State, had been among the most violent opponents of the Administration's war policy on the floors of Congress, and who had been living in exile in Canada after his arrest by order of the Administration the previous year. This convention nominated General George Brinton McClellan, of New Jersey, for President, and George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, for Vice-President, on a platform declaring the war a failure, and that "humanity, liberty and the public welfare" demanded that it be immediately stopped. While the convention was in session there also met in Chicago many members of the *Knights of the Golden Circle*, "Sons of Liberty," and other secret organizations in sympathy with the Confederates, and also Confederate officers from Canada, and it was then that the liberating and arming of the

eight thousand Confederate prisoners in Camp Douglas at Chicago and those at Indianapolis was planned.

Just after the adjournment of this anti-war convention the people of the Northern States sent up shouts of joy, in accompaniment to the booming of cannon and the anthems of thanksgiving for the great victories of Sherman and Farragut. Shortly before the Presidential election Fremont and Cochrane withdrew in favor of Lincoln and Johnson; and on November 8, 1864, the people of the Northern, or Free States pronounced in favor of a vigorous prosecution of the war by the reelection of Abraham Lincoln as President of the United States, with Andrew Johnson as Vice-President. Lincoln and Johnson carried all the Free States, except New Jersey, with the two border Slave States of Maryland and Missouri. McClellan and Pendleton carried the former's own State of New Jersey and the border Slave States of Delaware and Kentucky. The eleven seceded States, of course, took no part in the election. Maryland freed her slaves about this time.

The most prominent of the War Governors in the North were Samuel Cony of Maine, John A. Andrew of Massachusetts, William Sprague of Rhode Island, William A. Buckingham of Connecticut, Edwin D. Morgan of New York, Charles S. Olden of New Jersey, Andrew Gregg Curtin of Pennsylvania, John Brough of Ohio, Oliver Perry Morton of Indiana, Richard Yates of Illinois, Austin Blair of Michigan, Alexander W. Randall of Wisconsin, and Thomas C. Fletcher of Missouri.

The most eminent defenders of the War for the Union in the National Congress were John P. Hale of New Hampshire, Charles Sumner and Henry Wilson of Massachusetts, David Wilmot of Pennsylvania, Benjamin Franklin Wade and John Sherman of Ohio, Henry S. Lane of Indiana, Lyman Trumbull of Illinois, and Zachariah Chandler of Michigan, in the Senate; and George S. Boutwell and Henry L. Dawes of Massachusetts, Roscoe Conk-

ling and Reuben E. Fenton of New York, Thaddeus Stevens, William D. Kelley and Galusha A. Grow of Pennsylvania, Henry Winter Davis of Maryland, Robert C. Schenck of Ohio, George W. Julian and Schuyler Colfax of Indiana, Elihu B. Washburne of Illinois, and John A. Kasson of Iowa, in the House of Representatives. Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania, was Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means in the House of Representatives, and thus leader of the House. Galusha A. Grow, of Pennsylvania, and Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, were successively Speakers of the House of Representatives.

Early in 1865 the United States Senate adopted the Thirteenth Amendment of the National Constitution, prepared by Senator Lyman Trumbull, of Illinois, abolishing slavery forever within the limits of the United States. The House of Representatives adopted the amendment on January 31, by a vote of one hundred and nineteen yeas against fifty-six nays, eight members not voting. When Speaker Colfax announced that the necessary two-thirds majority had voted for the amendment, the House and the spectators manifested their satisfaction by the most enthusiastic outburst of applause, members on the floor springing to their feet and applauding with cheers and clapping of hands, the spectators in the crowded galleries waving their hats and making the chamber ring with enthusiastic plaudits, and hundreds of ladies in the galleries waving their handkerchiefs and participating in the general demonstration of enthusiasm. When this crowning act of emancipation was accomplished, Mr. Ingersoll, of Illinois, said: "In honor of this immortal and sublime event, I move that the House adjourn." The motion was carried by a vote of one hundred and twenty-one to twenty-four. On the following day (February 1, 1865) it was resolved to send the amendment to the State Legislatures for ratification, and before the close of the year (December 18, 1865) the Secretary of State, by proclamation, certified that three-fourths of the State Legislatures had ratified

the amendment, thus making it a part of the National Constitution.

At the beginning of 1865 the National armies were rapidly increasing and were abundantly supplied. The Union people were hopeful and confident. The Confederate armies were wasting away by desertion, disease and the losses in battle. In March, when Grant's pressure began to be intolerable, the Senate and House of Representatives of the Confederate Congress, adopted a measure which they had been discussing for some time, authorizing President Jefferson Davis to arm the slaves, but this measure came too late to be effectual. The Confederate soldiers were scantily fed and clothed, while their families at home were destitute and suffering. The Confederates—people and soldiers alike—were fast losing heart in their cause.

Toward the close of February, 1865, a peace conference was held at Fortress Monroe, between President Lincoln and Secretary Seward, on the part of the National government, and Vice-President Alexander H. Stephens, R. M. Hunter of Virginia, and John A. Campbell of Alabama, on the part of the Southern Confederacy. The conference failed, as President Lincoln and his Secretary of State would treat only on the basis of the integrity of the whole Union and the abolition of slavery, while the Confederate representatives were authorized by Jefferson Davis to treat only on the basis of the independence of the Confederate States. Davis wrote to Mr. Lincoln that he was anxious to see peace made "between the two countries." Mr. Lincoln replied that he was just as anxious to see peace restored "to our common country."

The military events of the first few months of 1865 made it evident that the Confederacy was rapidly toppling to its fall. One Confederate defeat and loss followed another in rapid succession. The first Union victory of the year was the capture of Fort Fisher.

After the port of Mobile had been closed to blockade-runners by Farragut's victories in August, 1864, Wilmington, North Caro-

lina, was the only port for blockade-running left to the Confederates. A Union military and naval expedition under General Butler and Admiral Porter had been sent against Fort Fisher, at the mouth of the Cape Fear River, in December, 1865. Porter's fleet bombarded the fort and troops were landed on Christmas day; but as General Butler considered the fort too strong to be taken by assault he withdrew his troops and relinquished the attack. General Grant promptly ordered General Alfred H. Terry with eight thousand troops to coöperate with Admiral Porter's fleet in an attack on Fort Fisher. Under cover of a fire from the fleet, Terry landed his troops on January 13, 1865; and after Admiral Porter's bombardment had continued two days, Terry's troops carried Fort Fisher by storm, January 15, 1865. With the surrender of the fort, its garrison of two thousand Confederate troops became prisoners of war.

The capture of Fort Fisher was followed the next morning by the evacuation and blowing-up of Fort Caswell and other defenses by the Confederates, who thus relinquished the entire control of the mouth of the Cape Fear River. On February 9 Terry was reinforced by General Schofield with twelve thousand troops from Thomas' victorious army in Tennessee, and Schofield took command of the combined forces, twenty thousand strong, which then advanced on Wilmington. The Confederates evacuated Fort Anderson and Wilmington, after burning the iron-clad rams *Tallahassee* and *Chickamauga*; and Schofield and Terry took possession of Wilmington on Washington's birthday, February 22, 1865.

During his six weeks' stay at Savannah, General Sherman assigned to the negroes who had followed his army the abandoned Sea Islands and rice fields on the coast of South Carolina and Georgia. On February 1, 1865, Sherman left Savannah, his army crossing the Savannah river at different points, and invaded South Carolina, thus beginning his great march through the Carolinas. He sent the Seventeenth corps under General Francis P. Blair by water to

Port Royal to threaten Charleston from that point. The extreme left wing of the army under General Slocum was supported by General Kilpatrick's cavalry. The Confederate cavalry under General Wheeler had felled trees everywhere in Sherman's path to obstruct his advance; but Sherman marched northward, driving small bodies of Confederate troops before him. By menacing Charleston he held Hardee there to defend it. By threatening Augusta, Georgia, he detained another Confederate force there.

Continuing his march northward, Sherman entered Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, on February 17. The Confederate cavalry under Wade Hampton had set fire to large piles of cotton bales before evacuating the city, thus destroying a large part of the city, which was only saved from destruction by the Union troops. Sherman's occupation of Columbia caused Hardee to evacuate Charleston on the same day; and on the following day, February 18, 1865, that city was taken possession of by National colored troops. Before evacuating Charleston, Hardee destroyed gunboats, rice, and many thousands of bales of cotton and fired the city, the flames spreading ruin on every side before they were extinguished by the Union troops. Thus this city—which the Northern people called "the Cradle of the Rebellion"—after withstanding a siege of nearly two years, was finally taken by the movements of an army many miles distant.

Sherman invaded North Carolina, after spreading desolation over a tract forty miles across South Carolina, Beauregard with Hood's shattered forces retreating before him, while Kilpatrick's cavalry had frequent spirited skirmishes with the Confederate cavalry under Wheeler and Wade Hampton. Sherman's whole army finally reached Fayetteville, North Carolina, March 12, 1865, being now confronted by an army of forty thousand Confederates under General Joseph E. Johnston, composed of the remnant of Hood's army under Beauregard, the force under Hardee from Charleston and other troops.

After halting at Fayetteville three days, Sherman resumed his march northward, himself leading the main body of his army toward Goldsboro', while the left wing under Slocum advanced toward Raleigh, covered by Kilpatrick's cavalry. Slocum defeated Hardee at the head of twenty thousand Confederates at Averysboro', March 16, 1865, each side losing about four hundred and fifty men. Hardee retreated, and Slocum moved toward Goldsboro'. At Bentonville, Slocum was attacked by Johnston's army, March 19, but repulsed six assaults of the Confederates upon his lines, and held his ground at night-fall. That night Slocum was joined by Sherman, and when Johnston found his army of forty thousand men confronted by Sherman's sixty thousand, the Confederate general retreated to Smithfield, while Sherman moved to Goldsboro'. In the battle of Bentonville each army lost over sixteen hundred men.

Sherman reached Goldsboro', March 22, 1865, where he was reinforced by Schofield and Terry, who had fought their way from Wilmington, driving the Confederates before them. Sherman then sailed in a swift steamer from Newbern to City Point, General Grant's headquarters, where he held a consultation with President Lincoln and Generals Grant and Meade, March 27, and returned to Goldsboro' three days later.

At Goldsboro' Sherman gave his weary army a rest. In his march from Savannah he had lost three thousand men, but he had cut a wide swath of desolation through both the Carolinas, and had forced the Confederates to abandon the seacoast from Savannah to Newbern. Since beginning his campaign against Johnston, early in May, 1864, he had marched more than eight hundred miles, beaten Johnston, out-generaled Hood and Beauregard, driven away Hardee and Wade Hampton, taken almost every city and town along his route, torn up railways and bridges, destroyed foundries, mills, workshops and storehouses, subsisted his army upon the country through which he marched, and desolated a tract forty miles wide. He was now in a position to coöper-

ate with Grant in his operations before Petersburg and Richmond.

Active operations against Mobile had been suspended during the winter, but in March, 1865, they were resumed by General Canby, the commander of the Gulf department, and Rear-Admiral Thatcher. General Canby, with over twenty-five thousand National troops, moved against Mobile. The Seventeenth corps reached Dauphin Island on March 12, and the Thirteenth corps, under General Gordon Granger, moved up from Mobile Point to strike Mobile on the east, while General Frederick Steele moved from Pensacola, with a division of colored troops on Blakely, and a brigade was transported from Cedar Point under a heavy fire of shells from the National iron-clad vessels. An active siege of Mobile was begun on March 25, in front of Blakely and Spanish Fort, the principal defenses of Mobile, by both the National fleet and army. Both these posts fell on April 9—the day of Lee's surrender—and during the next two days about nine thousand of the Confederate garrison under General Maury evacuated Mobile and fled up the Alabama river. On April 12, 1865, the city of Mobile was surrendered with the five thousand troops of the garrison still remaining in the city. The siege and capture cost the National forces about twenty-five hundred men.

While the siege of Mobile was in progress General Thomas sent out two important cavalry expeditions. One of these expeditions, consisting of thirteen thousand cavalry and two thousand infantry, under General J. H. Wilson, made a destructive raid through Alabama and Georgia, starting with sixty days' supplies transported by a train of two hundred and fifty wagons. Wilson started for the Tennessee river late in February, and swept southward through Alabama, menacing Columbus, Mississippi, and Tuscaloosa, Alabama. After encountering a Confederate detachment under General Roddy on the Cahawba, he pushed on with nine thousand cavalry and took Selma, on the Alabama river, April 2, 1865, after a spirited conflict with seven thousand Con-

federates under General Forrest, and destroyed the Confederate arsenal and armory and extensive foundries at that city. After a week's rest Wilson resumed his raid and took possession of Montgomery, the capital of Alabama, April 12—the day of the capture of Mobile—just after the Confederates had burned one hundred and twenty-five thousand bales of cotton. He then continued his raid eastward into Georgia, destroying railways and other property, and captured Columbus, Georgia, with twelve hundred prisoners, after a severe fight, and there also destroyed a large amount of property. On the same day a part of Wilson's force captured Fort Tyler, on the Chattahoochee river, at West Point, Georgia. Wilson crossed the Chattahoochee and reached Macon on April 21.

The other cavalry expedition sent out by General Thomas, under the command of General George Stoneman, swept through Southwestern Virginia to Salisbury, in North Carolina, destroying the railways and bridges by which the Confederate armies under Lee and Johnston, if defeated, might attempt to retreat. Stoneman started from Knoxville, Tennessee, late in March, destroying the Virginia and Tennessee Railway from Wytheville, and next the railway between Danville, Virginia, and Greensboro', North Carolina. On the way to Salisbury he routed a Confederate force, capturing fourteen cannon and nearly fourteen hundred prisoners. In Salisbury he destroyed a vast amount of public property, after which he returned to East Tennessee.

During the winter Confederate cavalry and guerrillas under Mosby, Rosser, McNeil and others had been somewhat active in West Virginia and in the vicinity of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, but were closely watched by Sheridan from his headquarters at Winchester. In compliance with an order from Grant, Sheridan left Winchester with ten thousand cavalry late in February, 1865, and made a raid on Lee's communications and against Lynchburg, the great storehouse of Lee's supplies. He rapidly swept up the Shenandoah Valley,

through Staunton, and almost annihilated Early's force of twenty-five hundred Confederate cavalry at Waynesboro, March 2, 1865, capturing eighteen hundred prisoners. He then pushed on to Charlottesville, destroying the railroad on the way, and at Charlottesville he destroyed manufactories, bridges and other property. He then sent a part of his force to destroy the railway to Lynchburg, and with the remainder he pushed on and demolished the James River Canal, after which he passed around Lee's left flank to White House and joined the Army of the Potomac on March 27, 1865, one month after he had left Winchester, taking position near Hatcher's Run.

During the winter of 1864-65 little of importance occurred at Petersburg and Richmond, and the Armies of the Potomac and the James, the latter under General Ord's command, remained quietly behind their intrenchments, but holding Lee's fifty thousand men with a tight grip. Only twice during the winter did Grant make any aggressive movements. One of these was early in December, when Meade sent Warren to destroy the Weldon railroad near the North Carolina border, December 7, 1864. The other was early in February, when two corps with cavalry were sent to Dinwiddie Court House, which resulted in a severe action near Hatcher's Run, February 5, 1865, in which the Union army lost two thousand men and the Confederates one thousand, but the Union lines were now permanently extended to that stream.

Lee now perceived to what Grant's movements were tending. South of him was Sherman. West of him was Thomas, with Stoneman's cavalry. North of him there was no hope. In his front Grant was ready to crush his army at one decisive blow. Sheridan's destructive operations thoroughly alarmed Lee, who saw that he must break through the Union lines and join Johnston in North Carolina if he would save his army, and with it the Southern Confederacy. Lee made a desperate effort to break through Grant's lines by an attack on Fort Steadman, in front of Petersburg,

March 26, 1865. He was at first successful and took the fort by assault, but it was recaptured the same day by Union troops under General John F. Hartrauft, and Lee was quickly driven back to his intrenchments with heavy loss.

Grant had now completed his arrangements for a final campaign. He called large bodies of troops from the Army of the James, on the north side of the James river before Richmond, and on March 29 began an advance by pushing his left, consisting of Sheridan with his ten thousand cavalry, and the Second and Fifth corps under Humphreys and Warren, across Hatcher's Run. Seeing his peril, Lee left Longstreet with eight thousand men to hold Richmond against the depleted Army of the James under General Ord, and took all available troops from his intrenchments and massed them on his endangered right near Five Forks.

A terrific struggle ensued April 1, 1865. The Union left under Warren and Sheridan were almost defeated at first. Sheridan was driven from Five Forks to Dinwiddie Court House, but he finally gained a complete victory over Lee's right, capturing the Confederate artillery and more than five thousand prisoners. In the evening Grant opened a terrible cannonade all along his lines in front of Petersburg upon Lee's works and the city. At dawn the next morning, Sunday, April 2, he made an assault upon the Confederate works all along the line from the Appomattox river to Hatcher's Run. Longstreet had come from Richmond to Lee's assistance, but it was too late. The Confederates were driven to their inner intrenchments, with the loss of many prisoners. In all Lee had lost ten thousand men. General A. P. Hill was killed. That very Sunday morning Jefferson Davis, while in church, received the following telegram from Lee: "My lines are broken in three places; we can hold Petersburg no longer; Richmond must be evacuated this evening." The Confederate President at once left church without saying a word.

Consternation reigned in the Confederate capital that Sunday afternoon, when the Confederate troops evacuated that city and Petersburg. The President, the Cabinet and the Congress of the Confederacy fled toward Danville, thus putting an end to the Confederate government. Hundreds of citizens also fled. The next morning, Monday, April 3, 1865, Richmond was occupied by Union colored troops under General Godfrey Weitzel, who received the surrender of the city from Mayor Mayo. As in the case of Charleston and Columbia, South Carolina, Richmond was in flames when the National troops entered the city. Before leaving the city the Confederate authorities had caused the magazines and gunboats to be blown up and large warehouses filled with tobacco to be set on fire, and before the National troops entered the city nearly all the business portion of Richmond was in ashes. At an early hour the Stars and Stripes were raised over the Capitol, where the Stars and Bars had waved for four years. On the following day, April 4, President Lincoln, who had been at General Grant's headquarters at City Point for several days, made his appearance in Richmond, and, in the mansion of Jefferson Davis, the fugitive President of the Southern Confederacy, he publicly received many army officers and citizens. General Grant, whose conquering arms had reduced Richmond after a siege of ten months, did not enter the city until nearly a year afterward, when he visited the city, not as a conqueror, but as a private citizen.

Lee, with the Army of Northern Virginia, now reduced to thirty-five thousand men, had evacuated Petersburg on the very day of the evacuation of Richmond, Sunday, April 2, 1865, and fled westward toward Lynchburg, hoping to join Johnston in North Carolina. Grant hotly pursued with the Army of the Potomac, and many of the Confederate troops were captured on the way. Lee's retreat was intercepted by Sheridan near Amelia Court House, where Lee's army was further reduced by the capture of General Ewell and his entire corps,

after a sharp fight, April 6. Lee's retreat then became a rapid flight. The fleeing army abandoned their guns, wagons and all the equipage of war. Their provisions had become exhausted, and men and horses dropped by the wayside. Many of the Confederate troops threw away their arms and dispersed to their homes. During this retreat there was daily fighting, as Grant's pursuing host harassed Lee's fleeing army without cessation, the Confederate leader, whose brilliant military talents had upheld the Confederate cause so long, making the most desperate efforts to escape.

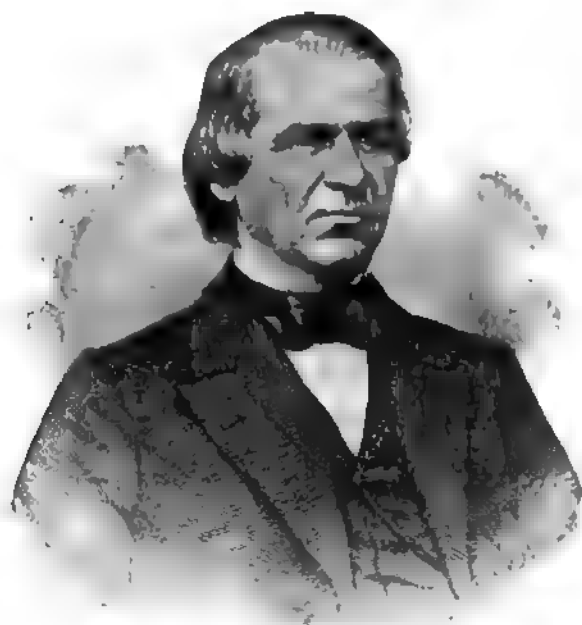
On Sunday morning, April 9, 1865, Lee failed in his last attempt to break through Grant's lines, at Appomattox Court House. Finding escape impossible, Lee met Grant at W. McLean's house, near Appomattox Court House, the same day, and surrendered what remained of the Army of Northern Virginia, less than twenty-seven thousand men. Grant's terms to his vanquished foe were most magnanimous. Lee's officers and troops were paroled on condition that they would not take up arms against the United States government until properly exchanged, while the officers were allowed to keep their horses, baggage and side-arms. The next day Lee issued an affectionate farewell to the officers and soldiers who had fought with such constancy by his side, and commended their valor, fortitude and devotion, and their generous consideration for himself.

The surrender of Lee's army practically ended the Civil War and saved the Union, and the popular rejoicings in the Northern States knew no bounds. The news of the fall of Richmond, and Lee's surrender, a week later, was hailed with shouts, bonfires, pealing of bells and booming of cannon. But in the midst of this joy over the return of peace and the preservation of the Union, the American people suddenly became a nation of mourners when the news spread over the country that President Lincoln had been assassinated on the very day that General Robert Anderson raised the Stars and Stripes over Fort Sumter, on

the fourth anniversary of his evacuation of the fort.

On the night of Good Friday, April 14, 1865, while Mr. Lincoln, with his wife, was seated in a private box in Ford's theater, in Washington, John Wilkes Booth, who had at one time been an actor in that theater, stole up behind the President and shot him through the head. The assassin, immediately after committing his tragical deed, leaped upon the stage, and brandishing a

The excitement over the assassination was most intense. A mingled feeling of horror, indignation and grief pervaded the country. Houses and stores were hung with black, and flags were draped in mourning. The murdered President's remains were honored with the most impressive funeral obsequies in Washington and throughout the country, after which they were conveyed to his home at Springfield, Illinois, where they now rest in a fine vault.



Andrew Johnson

large dagger, exclaimed, in the motto of Virginia, "*Sic semper tyrannis!*" "May this ever be the fate of tyrants!" Then turning to the audience, still flourishing his dagger, he exclaimed, "*The South is avenged!*" and made his escape. At the same time the Secretary of State, William H. Seward, while confined to his bed by an accident, and his son, Frederick W. Seward, were wounded at their house by the dagger of another assassin, but both recovered. Mr. Lincoln died the next morning, April 15, 1865.

The assassin was afterwards found in a barn in Virginia, and, refusing to surrender himself and showing resistance, the barn was set on fire, and he was shot by Sergeant Boston Corbett as he came out of the burning building. His accomplices in the assassination were tried by a military commission; and, upon conviction, four were hanged, one of them a woman, while three were imprisoned for life and one for six years.

About noon on the day that Mr. Lincoln died, April 15, 1865, Andrew Johnson, the

Vice-President, was sworn in as President of the United States by Chief Justice Chase. President Johnson retained President Lincoln's Cabinet, with Mr. Seward at its head.

The remaining history of the Civil War is soon told. Lee's surrender destroyed the last hope of the Southern Confederacy. On hearing the news of that event, General Sherman left Goldsboro, North Carolina, and resumed operations against Johnston, who retreated from Smithfield to Raleigh, the capital of the State, burning the bridge over the Neuse river and destroying the railway behind him. Sherman pursued closely and occupied Raleigh, April 13, after which he resumed his pursuit of Johnston to Hillsboro', where Johnston asked for a conference with his pursuer, April 14. The two generals met April 17, and agreed upon terms of surrender which practically ignored the results of the war and restored to all the Confederates every social and political right and privilege which they had enjoyed before the war. The National government rejected these conditions and sent General Grant to order an immediate resumption of hostilities. Thereupon Johnston surrendered his army of thirty-one thousand men to Sherman, April 26, 1865, on the same generous terms which Grant had accorded to Lee. Johnston, who was, like Lee, an honorable man and highly esteemed, issued an affectionate farewell to his troops, advising them to become good citizens and obey the laws of the United States. Johnston himself became a good citizen and honestly accepted the results of the war, and some years later represented a Virginia district in the National House of Representatives.

General Canby received the surrender of the remaining Confederate forces east of the Mississippi from General Richard Taylor, May 8, 1865, and the surrender of the Confederate forces west of the Mississippi from General E. Kirby Smith, May 26, 1865. Regular armed opposition to the National government was thus ended, and the announcement that guerrillas found in arms

against United States authority would be dealt with as outlaws was followed by the speedy dispersion of all guerrilla bands. Among the most famous of the guerrilla leaders of the Civil War was Colonel John S. Mosby, of Virginia.

All the vessels of the Confederate navy were soon surrendered, except the *Shenandoah*, commanded by Captain Waddell, who refused to credit the news of the overthrow of the Southern Confederacy, and continued a destructive cruise among the American whalers in the North Pacific for some months. He at length sailed to England and surrendered his vessel to the British authorities, who delivered it to the United States.

After leaving Richmond, Jefferson Davis, the late President of the Confederate States of America, fled to Danville, Virginia, whence he continued his flight southward for the purpose of escaping from the country. He was accompanied by his family and his Postmaster-General, Reagan, of Texas. General J. H. Wilson sent cavalry in quest of the fugitive chief; and on May 11, 1865, Davis was captured near Irwinsville, Georgia, by a part of the 4th Michigan cavalry, under the command of Lieutenant Colonel B. D. Pritchard, and was brought to Fortress Monroe, where he was kept close prisoner for two years, after which he was released on bail, charged with the crime of treason, May, 1867. He was never brought to trial, and died in Mississippi, December 11, 1889. During his later years he wrote a *History of the Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government*.

Alexander Hamilton Stephens, the late Vice-President of the Confederacy, was arrested at his home at Crawfordsville, Georgia, about the time of Davis' capture, and he and Postmaster-General Reagan were sent as prisoners to Fort Warren, at Boston, but were released in the fall of the same year. Stephens was a member of the National House of Representatives both before and after the war, and died in the fall of 1882, while Governor of Georgia. During his later years he wrote a *History of the War*

between the States. Reagan was afterward a United States Senator from Texas. Judah P. Benjamin, of Louisiana, the Confederate Secretary of State, escaped from the country and spent the rest of his life in England, where he attained fame and fortune as a practitioner at the bar. John Mitchell, an Irish patriot of 1848, who had been obliged to flee from Ireland to escape British vengeance for his part in Smith O'Brien's Rebellion, was arrested in Richmond for his part in the Confederate cause, but was released by President Johnson several months later.

The National armies at the close of the war numbered over a million men, and the National navy had over fifty thousand. Within a few months after the cessation of hostilities the greater part of these forces were disbanded, and the soldiers and seamen returned to their homes. No less wonderful than the alacrity with which peaceful citizens rushed to arms in 1861 was the ease and rapidity with which vast armies, surrounded by "all the pomp and circumstance of war," in the course of half a year resumed their duties as private citizens, engaged in the blessed pursuits of peace. The sweet "angel of peace" again hovered over the land. On June 2, 1865, General Grant issued a stirring farewell address to the "Soldiers of the Armies of the United States," commending their heroism, endurance and patriotic devotion, and their brilliant achievements.

The blockade of the Southern ports was raised and commerce resumed its sway. The military prisons on both sides were opened and the prisoners returned to their homes. The released Confederate captives were kindly sent to their homes at the expense of the National government. The Confederate soldiers, upon their return home, also at once devoted themselves to the arts of peace with the same zeal and alacrity with which they had taken up the sword four years before, and applied themselves diligently to building up their section and repairing the wastes of four years of horrid, cruel, devastating civil war. Pollard, of Richmond,

the Southern historian of the "*Lost Cause*," says that the war "closed on a spectacle of ruin the greatest of modern times. There were eleven great States lying prostrate; their capital all absorbed; their fields desolate; their towns and cities ruined; their public works torn to pieces by armies; their system of labor overturned; the fruits of the toil of generations all swept into a chaos of destruction." Pollard illustrates the poverty of the South at the close of the war by citing the case of South Carolina, which State in 1860 had property, including slaves, valued at four hundred million dollars, and which lost three-fourths of this wealth by the war, the only thing left being lands which had depreciated immensely in value.

Thus closed the most terrible civil war in the history of the world—a civil war in which almost nine hundred (892) regular engagements were fought. This terrific struggle—called the *War of the Rebellion*, or the *Civil War* in the North, and styled the *War of Southern Independence*, or the *War between the States*, in the South—fought on the part of the South for the establishment of an independent Confederacy of Slave States and on the part of the North for the preservation of the Union of States, was thus ended in the maintenance of the Union and in the abolition of chattel slavery in every part of the Union. The institution of slavery, which had prevailed south of Mason and Dixon's Line, the Ohio river and Iowa, and which had been the apple of discord between the North and the South for so many years, was against the spirit of the age throughout Christendom and the civilized world. Even the European nations which sympathized with the Confederates in their struggle for independence were opposed to the institution of chattel slavery, and it was probably owing to this fact that the Confederate States did not receive foreign recognition and assistance. The result for which the Abolitionists had so long labored was finally accomplished, and William Lloyd Garrison, Wendell Phillips and Gerrit Smith lived to see the triumph of their cause. A daughter of

John Brown taught a colored school in ex-Governor Henry A. Wise's house near Norfolk, Virginia.

The whole number of men called in the Union service was over two million six hundred and ninety thousand, of whom about one million four hundred and ninety thousand were in actual service. Nearly sixty thousand were killed in battle, and about thirty-five thousand were mortally wounded. One hundred and eighty-four thousand died of disease in camps and hospitals. Thus about three hundred thousand perished on the Union side. About the same number of Confederates perished, thus making a total loss of six hundred thousand. About four hundred thousand were crippled or disabled for life on both sides, thus making a total loss of a million able-bodied men to the country.

At the close of the war over sixty-three thousand Confederate prisoners were released. The number surrendered and paroled in the Confederate armies was over one hundred and seventy-four thousand. The records of the War Department show that two hundred and twenty thousand Confederates were made prisoners during the war, of whom nearly twenty-six thousand died of wounds or disease during their captivity, while of one hundred and twenty-six thousand Union soldiers captured, nearly twenty-three thousand died while prisoners. It is estimated that the whole number of Union captives was one hundred and ninety-six thousand, of whom forty-one thousand died in captivity. During the last year of the war loud complaints were made in the North that Union prisoners confined in Libby Prison in Richmond, on Belle Isle in the James river, at Danville in Virginia, at Salisbury in North Carolina, and especially at Andersonville in Georgia, were tortured and starved; and after the war Captain Wirz, the keeper of the Andersonville prison pens, was arrested and tried on the charge of inhumanity, and was convicted and hanged. It was charged by the Confederate authorities that the National government refused to exchange prisoners when

requested to do so by the Confederate Commissioner, Robert Ould.

The war at its close cost the National government about three and a half million dollars daily, and when the mighty conflict ended, the National debt amounted to three thousand million dollars. The National credit was well sustained during the struggle. The National government met the expenses of the war with promptitude, and the Northern people supported those expenses with cheerfulness. Besides the ordinary source of revenue, recourse was had to direct taxation and to various forms of loans. The banks had suspended specie payments by January 1, 1862. Congress authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to issue *United States Notes*, afterwards known as *Greenbacks*, which were made a legal tender, and which soon became the principal circulating medium in the Northern States. Silver and gold commanded a premium, and soon went out of circulation. Postage stamps and various kinds of tickets and checks passed current as small change until Congress authorized the issue of paper money of denominations less than a dollar, called *fractional currency*. During the war *National Banks* were established, and their notes supplanted other bank paper as a circulating medium and were secured by government bonds.

The Confederate credit soon began to depreciate, and cotton, the great staple on which the South depended to meet its foreign obligations, was kept at home by the blockade of its ports by the United States navy. Before the downfall of the Confederacy the Confederate currency had become almost worthless.

Among the charitable organizations formed in the North to relieve human suffering and to promote human advancement were the *Sanitary Commission* and the *Christian Commission*, private philanthropic associations in the Northern States, which expended many millions in their benevolent work, and whose agents were found in every camp and hospital and on every battlefield, administering to the wants and neces-

sities of both Union and Confederate sick, and giving Christian instruction and consolation to all who would accept them. The *Union Commission* brought succor to the people of the regions desolated by the war. The *Freedmen's Aid Societies* afforded aid and instruction to the emancipated colored race. At the close of the war a *Freedmen's Bureau* was established, and placed under the charge of General Oliver O. Howard. Contributions to all established charities, and to religious and literary institutions, were more liberal during the Civil War than ever before, and during the same period a ship-load of provisions was sent to the starving operatives of England.

THE RESTORED UNION.

Before the close of May, 1865, President Johnson issued a *Proclamation of Amnesty* to all Confederates who would take an oath of allegiance to the United States government, except to certain specified classes, and giving even these excepted classes an opportunity to apply for pardon.

A loyal State government had continued in Virginia throughout the war; but, after the separation of West Virginia from the rest of the Old Dominion, the authority of this State government extended only over the small part of Virginia in the possession of the National forces. A loyal State government had been established in Tennessee, to supersede that organized by Andrew Johnson as Military Governor. Loyal State governments had been organized in Louisiana and Arkansas, under the amnesty proclamation issued by President Lincoln in 1863. President Johnson recognized these as proper governments for those four States. President Johnson appointed Provisional Governors for the other conquered States, authorizing them to call State conventions for the purpose of establishing loyal State governments. Those States were required to rescind their ordinances of secession, to declare void all debts contracted in support of the Southern Confederacy, and to vote for the adoption of the Amendment of the National Constitution abolishing

slavery. The lately seceded States complied with the President's requirements.

The Thirteenth Amendment of the National Constitution, abolishing slavery forever in the United States, adopted by Congress early in 1865, and ratified by three-fourths of the States in the course of a few months, was finally declared adopted, December 18, 1865.

On the assembling of Congress in December, 1865, it became apparent that a disagreement existed between that body and the President respecting the restoration of the lately seceded States to their former relations with the Union. The President maintained that those States, by accepting the conditions which he had proposed, had manifested a desire to resume their old places in the Union, and that they were therefore at once entitled to representation in both Houses of Congress and to all their old political rights. Congress, with its overwhelming Republican majority in both Houses, contended that those States should not be represented in that body until they had complied with certain conditions imposed upon them in the shape of a Constitutional Amendment providing for suitable protection to the rights of the freedmen and proper precaution against the admission of the leaders of the secession movement to a participation in the National government. Congress proposed the Fourteenth Amendment of the National Constitution, guaranteeing civil rights to the freedmen, demanding the payment of the National debt, and prohibiting the payment of the Confederate debt, June 13, 1866. Tennessee at once ratified the proposed amendment, and its Senators and Representatives were admitted to seats in Congress.

The President vetoed various measures in the interest of the emancipated colored race—the Freedmen's Bureau Bill, the Civil Rights Bill and others; but these bills were passed by both Houses of Congress over the President's veto. The President was at variance on the Reconstruction question with the Republican party, which had elected him Vice-President, and which sustained

the policy of Congress, which had a Republican majority in each branch of more than two-thirds. The leaders of the Republican majority in the United States Senate were Charles Sumner and Henry Wilson of Massachusetts, Benjamin F. Wade and John Sherman of Ohio, Zachariah Chandler of Michigan, and Lyman Trumbull and Richard Yates of Illinois. Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania, a most radical Republican, was the leader of the Republican majority in the House of Representatives. Other prominent Republican members of the Lower House of Congress were General Benjamin F. Butler of Massachusetts, General James A. Garfield of Ohio, General John A. Logan of Illinois, William D. Kelley of Pennsylvania, John A. Bingham of Ohio, George W. Julian of Indiana, Roscoe Conkling of New York, James G. Blaine of Maine, and the Speaker, Schuyler Colfax of Indiana. President Johnson was sustained by most of his Cabinet, with Mr. Seward at its head.

During the Civil War in the United States, Napoleon III., the Emperor of the French, endeavored by force of arms to overthrow the Mexican Republic and place the Archduke Maximilian, brother of the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria, on a throne in Mexico as Emperor. After the close of the Civil War the United States government resolved to enforce the Monroe Doctrine and demanded the withdrawal of the French expeditionary troops from Mexico—a demand with which Napoleon III. complied in December, 1866. The result of this action was the overthrow and execution of the Emperor Maximilian, June 19, 1867, and the triumph of the Mexican Republic.

The secret Irish organization known as the Fenian Brotherhood, which sought the independence of Ireland, resolved upon making a raid into Canada from the United States, in May, 1866. A body of Fenians invaded Canada from Buffalo, New York, June 1, 1866, but were driven back after some skirmishing with the Canadian troops. During the same month, June, 1866, another body of Fenians entered Canada from St. Albans, Vermont, and were also driven

back. President Johnson issued a proclamation against this invasion of a friendly neighbor's territory, and sent General Meade to the Canadian frontier, thus putting a stop to this hostile act against a power with which the United States were at peace.

In the summer of 1866 telegraphic communication between America and Europe was established by means of the Atlantic Telegraph Cable, which was laid from Valentia, in Ireland, to Heart's Content, in Newfoundland. The accomplishment of this vast undertaking was owing to Cyrus West Field, of New York City. The Queen of Great Britain immediately sent a congratulatory dispatch to the President of the United States, and received a reply from him on the same day.

Two important conventions were held in Philadelphia in 1866. The first, which assembled August 14, and remained in session several days, was composed of Republicans and Democrats from the North who sustained President Johnson, and of ex-Confederates from the South. The second was composed of Southern Unionists who opposed President Johnson's policy, and of Republicans from the North who also took a stand against him. This latter convention met early in September and was called the "Southern Loyalists' Convention." The Nation was excited by a bloody riot in New Orleans, early in August, in which a Unionist convention was mobbed and broken up and a number of persons killed.

The elections in the fall of 1866 sustained the Reconstruction policy of Congress by a popular majority of six hundred thousand, and by the return of a Republican majority of more than two-thirds in the National House of Representatives.

The Thirty-ninth Congress, before the close of its last session, in March, 1867, passed, over the President's veto, a bill placing the lately seceded States under the military authority of the Republic until their full restoration as States of the Union should be effected, and prescribing the conditions on which they should be restored. Those States were divided into five military districts with

the following commanders: First District, Virginia, General John M. Schofield; Second District, North Carolina and South Carolina, General Daniel E. Sickles; Third District, Georgia, Florida and Alabama, General John Pope; Fourth District, Mississippi and Arkansas, General Edward O. C. Ord; Fifth District, Louisiana and Texas, General Philip H. Sheridan. This Military Reconstruction Act conferred the right of suffrage upon the lately emancipated slaves in the lately seceded States. During the same session of Congress a bill was passed over the President's veto, repealing the provisions of the Act of 1862 giving the President the right to grant amnesty and pardon to ex-Confederates. The Tenure-of-Office Act, also passed over the President's veto, limited the President's power in official appointments and removals.

During the last session of the Thirty-ninth Congress, early in 1867, an act was passed, over the President's veto, for the admission of Nebraska into the Union as a State. In the spring of 1867 Russia sold all her territorial possessions in North America to the United States for seven million two hundred thousand dollars. The purchased territory was named *Alaska*.

In August, 1867, President Johnson removed Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, from the Cabinet, and appointed General Grant in his place. The President next removed Generals Sheridan and Sickles from the commands of their respective military districts, against the protests of General Grant. During the regular session of the Fortieth Congress, the President stated his reasons for removing Secretary Stanton, December 12, 1867; but the Senate reinstated Mr. Stanton, January 13, 1868, and General Grant retired from the War Department. A quarrel between President Johnson and General Grant followed.

On February 21, 1868, President Johnson issued an order removing Secretary Stanton from the Cabinet a second time and appointing Adjutant-General Lorenzo Thomas in his stead, and notified the Senate of his action. The Senate passed a resolution

denying the President's right to remove Mr. Stanton. Thomas appeared at the War Department and demanded the office, but Mr. Stanton refused to yield it. The country was terribly excited; and the next day—February 22, 1868—the House of Representatives prepared articles of impeachment against President Johnson for a violation of the Tenure-of-Office Act and for other "high crimes and misdemeanors." The motion for impeachment was made by Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania. The House appointed the following seven of its members as managers of the impeachment before the bar of the Senate: Thaddeus Stevens and Thomas Williams, of Pennsylvania; General Benjamin F. Butler and George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts; John A. Bingham, of Ohio; General John A. Logan, of Illinois, and James F. Wilson, of Iowa. The Democratic members of the House formally protested against the whole impeachment proceedings. The Senate was organized as a High Court of Impeachment for the trial of the President, March 5, 1868. The trial began March 31. The President's counsel, William M. Evarts, of New York, made an able defense. After a trial of almost seven weeks the Senate acquitted the President of all the charges against him by a vote of thirty-five to nineteen; so that he escaped conviction by one vote, May 16, 1868. All the Democratic Senators—eight in number—were among those who voted for the President's acquittal.

During the remainder of President Johnson's Administration all the seceded States except Virginia, Mississippi and Texas complied with the conditions of Congress and were admitted to their former places in the Union. These States, when first admitted, had State governments administered by Republicans. The Fourteenth Constitutional Amendment—adopted in 1868—secured the results of the war, guaranteed civil rights to all without distinction of race or color, basing apportionment of representation according to population, securing the payment of the National debt, and prohibiting the payment of the Confederate debt.

In the spring of 1868 a Chinese embassy, headed by Anson Burlingame, who had served for the seven previous years as the first United States minister to China, visited the United States and concluded a treaty with this Republic, after which the embassy visited Europe on similar missions.

In May, 1868, the Republican National Convention at Chicago nominated General Ulysses Simpson Grant, of Illinois, for President of the United States, and Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, for Vice-President. The Democratic National Convention, which met in New York City, July 4, 1868, nominated ex-Governor Horatio Seymour, of New York, for President, and General Francis P. Blair, of Missouri, for Vice-President. On November 3, 1868, General Grant and Mr. Colfax were elected by an overwhelming majority. All the States voted in this election except Virginia, Mississippi and Texas, the three not yet re-admitted into the Union.

On the 4th of March, 1869, General Grant took the oath of office as eighteenth President of the United States. His Cabinet was at first headed by Elihu B. Washburne, of Illinois, as Secretary of State, who was soon succeeded by Hamilton Fish, of New York.

In May following, the railroad from Omaha, Nebraska, to Sacramento, California, was completed. This great National highway across the continent to the Pacific Ocean is known as the Union Pacific and the Central Pacific Railroads.

During the first year of Grant's Administration, Virginia, Mississippi and Texas, having complied with the requirements of Congress, were admitted to representation in that body; and thus all the seceded States were restored to their former places in the Union. President Grant appointed such ex-Confederates as had become Republicans to offices. General James Longstreet, of Virginia, was appointed Surveyor of the Port of New Orleans. Colonel John S. Mosby, the famous Virginia guerrilla, also obtained recognition from the Administration; as did James L. Orr, of South Carolina, and others.

All political distinctions on account of race or color in the United States were finally removed by the ratification and adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment of the National Constitution. This Amendment, which was declared adopted in March, 1870, secured the right of suffrage to all races within the borders of the Republic; and several hundred thousand colored men, who ten years before were held as chattels, now enjoyed the privileges of American citizens, and were placed on a political equality with their late masters.

For several years wars had been waged with various Indian tribes on the plains east of the Rocky Mountains. As Indian wars were always caused by dishonest white men who held the offices of Indian agents, President Grant adopted a more humane policy by appointing a number of Quakers as Indian agents, as those people had always been noted for their uprightness and peaceful principles.

A party in the negro Republic of San Domingo desired the annexation of that republic to the United States, and President Grant favored such annexation; but Charles Sumner, the Chairman of the Committee of Foreign Relations in the United State Senate, opposed the scheme. This disagreement produced a bad feeling between the President and Mr. Sumner, and before the close of the last session of the Fortieth Congress, March 4, 1871, the President's supporters in the Senate caused Mr. Sumner to be removed from the Chairmanship of the Foreign Relations Committee. This produced great indignation in the Republican party throughout the country, and the party press almost unanimously denounced the course of the Administration's friends in the Senate and sustained Mr. Sumner.

On the 1st of June, 1871, the United States fleet under Admiral Rodgers, while in the waters of Korea, in Eastern Asia, was fired upon from the Korean forts, but repulsed the attack, and on the 10th and 11th of the same month, June, 1871, the Americans defeated the Koreans and captured their forts, after some spirited fighting.

A great fire which broke out in Chicago on October 8, 1871, raged two days, spreading desolation over an area of three square miles, destroying more than seventeen thousand buildings, and inflicting a loss of almost two hundred million dollars. This was one of the most destructive fires of modern times, but Chicago soon arose out of her ashes, grander and greater than before. On November 9, 1872, a great fire in Boston swept over an area of sixty-five acres in the heart of the business portion of that city, destroying seven hundred and seventy-six buildings, and inflicting a loss of seventy-eight million dollars.

The conduct of England in allowing the construction, in her ports, and the escape therefrom, of the *Alabama* and other Anglo-Confederate privateers, had produced a bitter feeling in the United States against the British government. A treaty signed by Lord Clarendon, the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, on the part of Great Britain, and by Reverdy Johnson, the United States minister to Great Britain, on the part of the United States, on January 15, 1869, was almost unanimously rejected by the United States Senate, and the controversy threatened to end in war between the two nations in the early part of General Grant's Administration.

In February, 1871, five commissioners appointed by the United States government, and five appointed by the British government, met in Washington as the *Joint High Commission*. The American commissioners were Hamilton Fish, Robert C. Schenck, Samuel Nelson, Ebenezer R. Hoar and George H. Williams. The British commissioners were Earl de Grey and Ripon, Sir Stafford Northcote, Sir Edward Thornton, Sir John Macdonald of Canada, and Professor Montague Bernard. On May 8, 1871, the commissioners agreed upon the Treaty of Washington, which was speedily ratified by the two governments. The Treaty of Washington provided for the settlement of the *Alabama* dispute by a *Court of Arbitration*, consisting of five Arbitrators, to be appointed respectively by the

President of the United States, the Queen of Great Britain, the Emperor of Brazil, the King of Italy, and the President of Switzerland.

The five Arbitrators were Charles Francis Adams on the part of the United States, Lord Chief Justice Sir Alexander Cockburn on the part of Great Britain, Baron d'Itazubá on the part of Brazil, Count Frederick Sclopis on the part of Italy, and Jacob Staempfli on the part of Switzerland. Count Sclopis was chosen president of the Court of Arbitration. J. C. Bancroft Davis was the agent of the United States, and Lord Tenterden was the agent of Great Britain. Caleb Cushing, William M. Evarts and Morrison R. Waite were the counsel of the United States, and Sir Roundell Palmer, the Lord Chancellor, was the counsel of Great Britain.

When the Court of Arbitration met, at Geneva, Switzerland, in February, 1872, American claims for indirect or consequential damages were presented, but the British Arbitrator violently objected to the consideration of such claims, and his course was approved and sustained by the British government and people. Intense excitement and bitter feeling against the United States was manifested in Great Britain, and it was feared that the arbitration would signally fail. The United States government for some time obstinately persisted in its preposterous claims for consequential damages, and the British government as persistently denied the justice of such claims; but, after several months' negotiation between the two governments, the Tribunal of Arbitration, upon reassembling, in June, 1872, settled the question by rejecting the consideration of the claims of the United States for indirect damages. Charles Francis Adams was the only Arbitrator dissenting from the views of the Court on this point.

The *Alabama* Claims Arbitration Tribunal at Geneva finally concluded its work on September 6, 1872. The Court expressed in mild terms England's want of due diligence in preventing the escape of the Anglo-Confederate cruisers, and

awarded the United States fifteen and one-half million dollars for damages. The only Arbitrator dissenting from the views of the Court was Sir Alexander Cockburn. Thus was settled amicably a dispute which had threatened to involve in war two nations kindred in race, language, institutions and religion, presenting to the whole civilized world a most commendable spectacle.

A portion of the Republican party, known

National Convention in Baltimore, instead of nominating candidates from their own party, adopted the Liberal Republican nominations. A new party, called the Prohibition party, which demanded the suppression of the liquor traffic, in a National Convention, at Columbus, Ohio, February 22, 1872, nominated James Black, of Pennsylvania, for President, and John Russell of Michigan, for Vice-President. The Labor Reformers



HORACE GREELEY.

as the Liberal Republicans, dissatisfied with General Grant's Administration, held a National Convention in Cincinnati, early in May, 1872, and nominated Horace Greeley, editor and founder of the *New York Tribune*, for President, and Governor Benjamin Gratz Brown, of Missouri, for Vice-President. Early in June the regular Republican National Convention, in Philadelphia, renominated President Grant, with Senator Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, for Vice-President. Early in July the Democrats, in their

nominated David Davis, of Illinois, an Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court, for President, and Governor Joel Parker, of New Jersey, for Vice-President, but both nominees declined. For the first time since 1860 all the States took part in electing a President. On November 5, 1872, President Grant was reelected by a majority far greater than in 1868; and on the 29th of the same month Mr. Greeley died, mourned by the whole American people. For more than a quarter of a century he had been a

prominent figure in American politics, and had been regarded as the leading American journalist, the "king of editors," the chief educator of the Republican masses. He had been a radical anti-slavery man, but after the Civil War he advocated universal amnesty and universal suffrage, and became one of the bondsmen of Jefferson Davis. Soon after President Grant's second inauguration, Chief Justice Chase died, May 12, 1873; and early in 1874 Morrison R. Waite, of Ohio, was appointed his successor.

The last session of the Forty-second Congress was one of unpleasant memory. After passing an act raising the President's salary from twenty-five thousand dollars a year to fifty thousand, that body voted an increase of pay for its members—a proceeding which was universally denounced throughout the country. During the same session a Congressional investigation revealed the fact that many members of both Houses of Congress and high functionaries held stock in the *Credit Mobilier of America*, a corporation which built the Pacific Railroad. As the value of the stock depended upon the legislation of Congress, the unpleasant disclosures brought to light by the investigation in February, 1873, aroused great popular indignation. Two Representatives were censured by the House, and a Senator narrowly escaped expulsion.

Both parties claimed to have carried the election in Louisiana in November, 1872, and for some time Louisiana had two Governors and two Legislatures. In accordance with an order issued by Judge Durrell, of the United States District Court of Louisiana, United States troops seized the State House in New Orleans on the night of December 6, 1872, and held it for William Pitt Kellogg, the Republican claimant for the Governorship, against John McEnery, the Democratic claimant. An armed attack on the Kellogg officials in New Orleans, March 5, 1873, was quelled by United States troops. One hundred and fifty negroes were killed in a bloody conflict at Colfax, in Grant parish, April 13, 1873. United States troops suppressed an armed insurrection of

McEnery's partisans at St. Martinsville, May 7, 1873.

The attempt of the National government to remove the Modoc Indians, of Northern California, to a reservation in Southern Oregon, in November, 1872, was resisted by the Modocs, who numbered only sixty warriors under their famous sachem, Captain Jack, and their other chiefs, Shack-Nasty Jim, Schonchin, Bogus Charlie, Boston Charlie and Scar-faced Charlie. Captain Jack defeated the United States troops in November, 1872, and January, 1873. General Canby and Commissioner Thomas were treacherously assassinated by Captain Jack and Boston Charlie at a peace conference, on Good Friday, April 11, 1873. General Schofield, who then commanded the United States forces in the Pacific department, sent troops after the Modocs, who fled to the Lava Beds, in Southern Oregon, and who frequently repulsed the attacks of the troops in April and May. The surrender of Captain Jack and his bands, June 1, 1873, ended the famous *Modoc War*. Captain Jack and the other Modoc leaders who had murdered General Canby and Commissioner Thomas were hanged October 3, 1873, in accordance with the sentence of a court-martial, and the surviving Modocs were settled among other Indian tribes.

President Grant signed a bill passed by Congress in February, 1873, for demonetizing the silver dollar; and in the fall of 1873 a terrible financial crisis swept over the country commencing with the failure of the banking house of Jay Cooke and Company, of Philadelphia. Many leading banking houses of New York and other large cities failed, and the consequences were felt to the remotest borders of the Union, affecting every business and manufacturing interest in the land, and causing much distress among the laboring population and the poor in the large cities. For the next six years the country suffered from a general industrial and business depression. President Grant vetoed a bill passed by Congress in April, 1874, to inflate the country with more paper money, but he signed a bill providing

for a more equal distribution of the paper currency among the different sections of the Union, passed in June, 1874. In January, 1875, the President signed a bill passed by Congress providing for a resumption of specie payments on January 1, 1879. In the spring of 1876 he also signed a bill passed by Congress providing for the substitution of fractional silver coin in place of the fractional paper currency which had been in circulation ever since the suspension of specie payments in 1861, in consequence of the Civil War.

On October 31, 1873, the steamer *Virginus*, flying the American flag, manned by Americans and Cubans, and commanded by Captain Fry, was seized by the Spanish war vessel *Tornado*, off the coast of Jamaica, on the ground that she was a filibustering vessel and was carrying war material to the Cuban insurgents. In the course of a few days fifty-three of the crew and passengers were shot by order of the Spanish military authorities at Santiago de Cuba. These wholesale executions produced intense indignation and a warlike feeling in the United States against Spain. Immense public meetings were held in New York and other large cities, and large offers of volunteers were made to the National government. In New Orleans, General Longstreet, Surveyor of the Port, offered twenty-five thousand men to President Grant. The Castelar government in Spain finally acceded to the demand of the United States for reparation, and a protocol was signed at Washington by Secretary of State Hamilton Fish and the Spanish minister to the United States, November 29, 1873, by which Spain was required to restore the *Virginus* and the survivors of her passengers and crew, and to pay an indemnity to the families of the victims. The *Virginus* was delivered to the United States navy at Bahia Honda, in Cuba, December 16, 1873; and the crew and passengers were released at Santiago de Cuba two days later. As the *Virginus* commenced leaking badly soon after her departure from Bahia Honda, she was abandoned by her crew, and the vessel sunk to

the depths of the ocean off Cape Fear, North Carolina, December 26, 1873. Two days later her crew and passengers arrived at New York City in the United States sloop-of-war *Juniata*.

Like Louisiana, Arkansas had two claimants for the office of Governor—Elisha Baxter, Grant Republican, and Joseph Brooks, Liberal Republican—both of whom claimed to have been elected in November, 1872. The votes of several counties were thrown out on account of alleged frauds, thus leaving Baxter a majority in the State, and he was accordingly inaugurated. On April 15, 1874, the Circuit Court of Pulaski county decided in favor of Brooks' claims, whereupon his adherents siezed the State House in Little Rock. A short civil war followed. Brooks and Baxter each collected a small army at Little Rock, and the greatest excitement prevailed in the city. Baxter appealed to President Grant for aid, but the President declined to interfere, except to preserve the peace, and United States troops were sent to Little Rock to prevent bloodshed. A number of conflicts in and near Little Rock, in which a number were killed and wounded, were ended by United States troops, April and May, 1874. The State Legislature met at Baxter's call and decided in favor of his claims, whereupon President Grant issued a proclamation recognizing Baxter and ordering Brooks to submit. Brooks' party surrendered the State House, May 19, 1874, whereupon the opposing forces dispersed and quiet was restored.

The action of the Kellogg police in New Orleans in seizing arms belonging to private individuals caused a violent insurrection in the city against Governor Kellogg, September 14, 1874, and ten thousand militia under Lieutenant-Governor D. B. Penn, of Governor McEnery's party, held possession of the city, and routed the Kellogg police, cavalry and artillery, under the command of General Longstreet, capturing all their cannon, after a severe fight in which eighty men were killed and wounded on both sides. Governor Kellogg, General Longstreet and others fled for refuge to the Custom House,

where they were sheltered by United States troops. The next day—September 15, 1874—the State House, all the State and city property, police stations, arsenals, and police and fire alarm telegraphs, and the Kellogg police and militia were surrendered to Lieutenant-Governor Penn, who thus held control of the city, and the Kellogg State government was practically overthrown. In response to Governor Kellogg's application, President Grant issued a proclamation ordering the McEnery insurgents to disperse and return to their homes; and the McEnery government submitted to the President's orders, September 17, 1874, surrendering the State Capitol and other buildings in New Orleans to the United States military authorities, thus leaving the Kellogg administration once more in possession of the State government of Louisiana.

The elections in the fall of 1874 showed an overwhelming reaction against President Grant's Administration; the Democratic party carrying most of the States of the Union, even the hitherto certain Republican State of Massachusetts, and securing an overwhelming majority in the House of Representatives of the Forty-fourth Congress—the first Democratic House of Representatives in sixteen years. The election of Democratic Legislatures in many of the States gave the same party a large gain of United States Senators.

When the newly-elected Legislature of Louisiana assembled, January 4, 1875, a quarrel ensued about the organization. The McEnery party attempted to seize control of the House of Representatives and elected a Speaker; but the Kellogg party appealed to the military authorities in New Orleans, whereupon General De Tobriand entered the State House with United States troops and drove out five of the McEnery members whose titles to seats were disputed by the Kellogg party. The action of the military authorities was severely denounced even by supporters of the Administration; and indignation meetings were held in New York, Boston and other Northern cities. The question was taken up by Congress, and

a compromise was effected by a committee of the House of Representatives with William A. Wheeler, of New York, as chairman.

The Nation was now completing the first century of its existence, and the centennials of Revolutionary events were observed with appropriate ceremonies. The one hundredth anniversary of the destruction of tea in Boston harbor was appropriately celebrated at Boston and other places, December 16, 1873; as was also the centennial anniversary of the meeting of the First Continental Congress, at Philadelphia, September 5, 1874. Magnificent celebrations of the one hundredth anniversary of the skirmishes at Lexington and Concord, Massachusetts, April 19, 1875, about one hundred thousand people having assembled on the occasion to witness the ceremonies and hear the addresses. The centennial of the capture of Ticonderoga by Ethan Allen was also duly celebrated by the inhabitants at that village, May 10, 1875; as was also the centennial of the Mecklenburg Declaration by the people of Charlotte, North Carolina, May 20, 1875. The centennial of the battle of Bunker Hill, at Boston and Charlestown, Massachusetts, June 17, 1875, was the grandest celebration of that year; people from different parts of the Union participating, and a procession twelve miles in length marching to the spot consecrated to Freedom.

For six years preparations had been made for the celebration of the one hundredth year of American Independence by a great *Centennial International Exhibition*, or World's Fair, in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia—a grand display by all nations of their "arts, manufactures and products of the soil and the mine." A number of immense Exposition buildings were erected in Fairmount Park for the occasion. The Centennial International Exhibition was opened with imposing ceremonies, Wednesday, May 10, 1876, in the presence of almost two hundred thousand spectators, among whom were President Grant and his Cabinet, Senators and Representatives in Congress, Judges of the Supreme Court, Governors of States,

army officers, the Emperor Dom Pedro II. of Brazil and the members of the foreign legations at Washington. President Grant declared the Exhibition open, and he and the Emperor of Brazil started the great Corliss engine, thus setting in motion fourteen acres of machinery, comprising eight thousand different machines. The different nations of the world made exhibits of their various products. The Exposition lasted six months, May 10—November 10, 1876; and during that time there were eight million paying visitors on the Exhibition grounds. Over one hundred and fifty thousand persons were present at the closing day, Friday, November 10, 1876, when President Grant assisted in the closing ceremonies.

The 4th of July, 1876—the one hundredth anniversary of American Independence—was observed throughout the United States with fitting and impressive ceremonies. The most magnificent celebration was in Philadelphia, the birth-place of the Nation, where several hundred thousand visitors spent the day in the city so classic in Revolutionary history. During the preceding night a magnificent procession nearly seven miles in length paraded on Broad and Chestnut streets. In this procession were Governors of States; army and navy officers; the Emperor Dom Pedro II. of Brazil; Prince Oscar of Sweden; the Count de Rochambeau, grandson of the Count de Rochambeau who aided Washington in the siege of Yorktown; Sir Edward Thornton, the British minister at Washington; the foreign commissioners at the Centennial International Exhibition; and the clubs and trades of the city. On the approach of the procession to Independence Hall, at midnight, the new Liberty Bell in the spire of that old historic building opened the clanging chorus, which was taken up by steeple after steeple throughout the city. Amid the brazen din came the shrieks of steam whistles, reports of artillery and small arms, and the racket of fire crackers let off by impatient Young America. On the morning of the 4th there was a grand military parade on Broad and Chestnut streets, in which the *Centennial Legion*, composed of

select companies from the Old Thirteen States, made an imposing appearance. Among the distinguished guests present at the ceremonies on Independence Square were the Emperor Dom Pedro II. of Brazil; Sir Edward Thornton, the British minister at Washington; Generals Sherman, Sheridan, Hooker and McDowell, and a number of Governors of States. The Declaration of Independence was read from the original document by Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, grandson of the Richard Henry Lee who offered the resolution of Independence in the Continental Congress in 1776. Bayard Taylor recited an inspiring poem composed by himself; and the Hon. William Maxwell Evarts, of New York, a grandson of Roger Sherman, delivered a grand oration. The ceremonies on Independence Square closed amid the wildest enthusiasm. In the evening there was a brilliant pyrotechnic display in East Park, at which fifty thousand persons were present.

In April, 1876, Dom Pedro II., Emperor of Brazil, arrived in New York, on a visit to the United States. During a period of three months he visited many portions of the country, crossing the continent to California, and endeavoring to learn something of the industries and resources of the Nation. He was present at the opening ceremonies of the Centennial International Exposition at Philadelphia on May 10, and at the ceremonies on Independence Square on July 4. In July he sailed for Europe.

On March 4, 1875, Congress passed an act for the admission of Colorado into the Union as the thirty-eighth State. Colorado having at length complied with the enabling act of Congress and formed a State Constitution, President Grant issued a proclamation, July 4, 1876, declaring Colorado a State of the American Union. Thus Colorado became the "Centennial State."

For several years there were repeated troubles with the Sioux Indians under their famous chiefs—Sitting Bull, Crazy Horse, Red Fox, Red Dog, Rocky Bear, Living Bear, Bearskin, Bear-Stant-Up and Black Moon. In 1872 Sitting Bull was repulsed

in two attacks upon the United States troops under General George A. Custer, the dashing young cavalry officer in the Civil War.

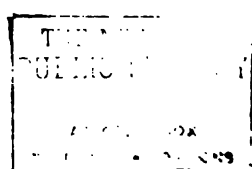
vation and made war on all peaceable Indians. The continual intrusion of the whites, especially after the discovery of gold



THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

In 1873 Sitting Bull was repulsed in a night attack upon Colonel Baker. In 1874 he drove the Crow Indians from their reser-

in the Black Hills, in Montana Territory, had excited the cupidity of gold seekers, led to serious troubles with the Sioux, the





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GENERAL CUSTER'S LAST STAND

Cheyennes and other Indian tribes. In the summer of 1875 a number of chiefs visited Washington and offered to sell their lands for one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, but as the government refused to pay more than twenty-five thousand they returned to their various tribes dissatisfied. The Sioux determined to defend their lands by force of arms. In the summer of 1876 an expedition under General Alfred H. Terry, assisted by Generals Custer, Crook, Gibbon, Merritt and others took the field against the Sioux. Crook defeated the Sioux on the Rosebud river, June 17, 1876. On June 25, 1876, General Custer and his entire command of three hundred and seven men fell into an ambush on the Little Big Horn river, and were all massacred by four thousand Sioux under Sitting Bull. On the same and the next day Major Reno attacked the Indians, who retired after the arrival of General Terry. The war continued several months longer; but after General Crook had completely defeated the Sioux and captured a Sioux camp, September 9, 1876, the Sioux agreed to a treaty of peace relinquishing a portion of the Black Hills, September 22, 1876. Hostilities were afterward renewed, and Sitting Bull and his band were defeated, whereupon they fled into the British dominion, where they remained for several years, during which they were notified by the Canadian authorities that if they recrossed into the United States with hostile intent they would have the British as well as the Americans to fight.

On June 16, 1876, the Republican National Convention at Cincinnati nominated Governor Rutherford Birchard Hayes, of Ohio, for President of the United States, and William A. Wheeler, of New York, for Vice-President. On June 28 the Democratic National Convention at St. Louis nominated Governor Samuel Jones Tilden, of New York, for President, and Governor Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, for Vice-President. The National Greenback party, which demanded an additional issue of paper money by the National government, nominated Peter Cooper, of New York, for

President, and Samuel F. Cary, of Ohio, for Vice-President. The Prohibition party, in a National Convention at Cleveland, Ohio, May 17, 1876, nominated General Green Clay Smith, of Kentucky, for President, and Gideon T. Stewart, of Ohio, for Vice-President. The election, November 7, 1876, was claimed by both parties. Three Southern States—Louisiana, Florida and South Carolina—were in dispute, and prominent leaders of both parties went from the North to Louisiana to watch the counting of the vote of that State by the State Returning Board. The Returning Boards of the three disputed States declared their States to have gone for the Republican National and State tickets, but the claim was disputed by the Democrats. In Florida a recount of the votes resulted in favor of the Republican Presidential ticket and the Democratic State ticket. In Louisiana and South Carolina two State governments were organized. In Oregon, where the Republican Electors were chosen, a difficulty arose concerning the eligibility of one of the Electors, and the Governor gave a certificate of election to one of the Democratic Electoral candidates, thus further embarrassing the situation.

When Congress assembled, in December, 1876, committees were appointed in both Houses to proceed to the three disputed States to investigate the affairs of the election. In January, 1877, a joint committee of the two Houses of Congress agreed upon a bill for counting the Electoral vote. This bill provided for the decision of the cases of the disputed States by an *Electoral Commission*, composed of five Senators, five Representatives and five Supreme Court Judges. This bill was speedily passed by overwhelming majorities of both Houses of Congress, and received the President's signature January 30, 1877. The members of the Electoral Commission were immediately chosen and entered upon their duties February 1, 1877, when both Houses met in joint convention to count the Electoral vote. The case was ably argued before the Commission by William M. Evarts, of New York, coun-

sel for Hayes and Wheeler, and by Jeremiah S. Black, of Pennsylvania, counsel for Tilden and Hendricks. The Commission, which was composed of eight Republicans and seven Democrats, decided by a strict party vote not to take evidence concerning the popular vote in the disputed States. The Commission also decided, by a strict party vote, to give the Electoral votes of all the disputed States to Hayes and Wheeler. The decisions of the Electoral Commission caused intense dissatisfaction among the Democrats, and a large number of Democratic Representatives resorted to filibustering to prevent the completion of the count of the Electoral vote by the joint convention of the two

and ex-Confederate, as Postmaster-General.

The question which first engaged the attention of the new Administration was the settlement of the domestic troubles in Louisiana and South Carolina, in each of which two State governments had been organized. The question was settled within less than two months by President Hayes' action in withdrawing the United States troops from the capitals of those two States, whereupon the Republican State governments ceased to exist, and the authority of the Democratic Governors was undisputed. Thus Francis T. Nichols became Governor of Louisiana, instead of Stephen B. Packard, and General

Wade Hampton became Governor of South Carolina, instead of Daniel H. Chamberlain, who had already served one term.

About the middle of July, 1877, many of the employees of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad resisted a reduction of wages, and at Martinsburg, West Virginia, the affair assumed such serious dimensions that the State authorities were unable to deal with it, and Governor Matthews, of West Virginia, was obliged to call upon the National



THE WHITE HOUSE.

Houses of Congress, but the count was successfully completed at four o'clock on the morning of March 2, 1877, and Hayes and Wheeler were declared elected by a majority of one Electoral vote, or by 185 to 184. The elections of 1876 again gave the Democrats a majority in the National House of Representatives.

Governor Hayes was sworn into office as President by Chief Justice Waite on March 3, 1877, the 4th coming on Sunday. The other inauguration ceremonies were performed on the 5th, when Mr. Wheeler took the oath of office as Vice-President. President Hayes selected an able Cabinet, with William M. Evarts, of New York, his chief counsel before the Electoral Commission, as Secretary of State; Senator John Sherman, of Ohio, as Secretary of the Treasury, and David M. Key, of Tennessee, a Democrat

government for aid in suppressing domestic violence, whereupon President Hayes issued a proclamation calling upon the rioters to disperse, and sent United States troops to restore quiet. The employees on all the Grand Trunk lines in the Northern States resisted the reduction of wages, and allowed no freight train to move for several weeks, and large portions of the laboring classes, sympathizing with the railroad strikers, inaugurated great riots in many of the leading cities of the Northern States. On July 20 and 21 there was a serious riot in Baltimore, and the 6th Maryland regiment and a small body of United States troops were stoned by a furious mob, but President Hayes sent United States troops at the call of Governor Carroll, of Maryland, and the disturbance was quelled after a number of lives had been lost. On July 21 and 22 the most serious

of all the rioting occurred at Pittsburg, where an infuriated mob attacked the Philadelphia militia who had been sent to preserve order, and were fired upon, many being killed and wounded on each side. The Philadelphia troops retreated to the round house, which was besieged and set on fire by the mob, who finally dislodged the troops and drove them from the city. The Pitts-

exasperated at the violation of a treaty by the whites, commenced a fierce war against the white settlers on the Salmon river by a bloody massacre of men, women and children at Mount Idaho. The Indians attacked and defeated the United States troops sent against them with a loss of twenty-seven killed. General Howard fought the Nez Perces four days on the Cottonwood,



*Sincerely
R. B. Hayes*

burg mob destroyed about one hundred and twenty-five locomotives and burned almost a thousand cars, and the Pennsylvania Railroad Company sustained a total loss of seven million dollars. The Governors of Pennsylvania and Ohio called upon the President for military aid. Bloody riots also occurred at Reading, Buffalo, Columbus, Chicago, St. Louis, San Francisco and other cities.

About the middle of June, 1877, the Nez Perces, a powerful Indian tribe in Idaho Territory, led by their chief, Joseph, and

July 2-5, 1877, but they finally escaped. General Howard defeated Chief Joseph at the mouth of the Cottonwood, July 13, 1877, the Indians being shelled from their position and put to flight. General Gibbon fought the Nez Perces at the Big Hole River, August 9, 1877, but the Indians finally escaped, after losing one hundred killed and wounded, while seven of Gibbon's troops were killed and wounded. General Howard pursued and overtook Chief Joseph, but in an indecisive engagement the Indians

seized General Howard's horses and made a rapid flight. General Sturgis defeated the Nez Percés in a running fight of over one hundred miles, September 13 and 14, 1877. General Miles defeated them on September 30, 1877. A few days later Joseph surrendered, and the war ended, October, 1877.

During the years 1877 and 1878 the centennial anniversaries of various Revolutionary events were celebrated with appropriate ceremonies at the places where those events occurred. Thus the centennial of the battle of Bennington was celebrated, August 16, 1877, President Hayes being present. The centennial of the battle of Brandywine was celebrated September 11, 1877, and the centennial of the massacre of Paoli, September 20, 1877. The centennial of the battle of Monmouth was celebrated June 28, 1878. There was a centennial celebration at Valley Forge, June, 1878. The centennial of the massacre of Wyoming was celebrated with imposing ceremonies at Wyoming and Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, July 3 and 4, 1878, President Hayes and part of his Cabinet being present. The centennial of the massacre of Cherry Valley, New York, was also celebrated in 1878.

At the beginning of June, 1878, the Bannocks and Shoshones, two Indian tribes of Northern Oregon, began a murderous war against the whites, but after a bloody war of three months these savage tribes were subdued by United States troops under Generals Howard and Miles, at the beginning of September, 1878. In September, 1878, the Cheyennes left their agency in Indian Territory and committed frightful massacres in Eastern Colorado, but were severely defeated by United States troops, after which they fled into Nebraska. They were imprisoned at Fort Robinson, Nebraska, whence they escaped in January, 1879, but they were soon surrounded, and, refusing to surrender, were all but exterminated.

In the fall of 1878 Memphis, Tennessee, was stricken with yellow fever, which carried off thousands of its inhabitants. The people from all sections of the country re-

sponded nobly to the cry for help from the stricken city, and the horrors of the pestilence were finally ended upon the approach of cooler weather.

In the elections of 1878 the National Greenback-Labor party polled over a million votes and elected several dozen Congressmen. Those elections again gave the Democrats a majority in the National House of Representatives; and from March 4, 1879, to March 4, 1881, the United States Senate had a Democratic majority also.

The people of the United States were still suffering from the business prostration caused by the disastrous effects of the panic of 1873. In February, 1878, a bill remonetizing the silver dollar was passed by both Houses of Congress over President Hayes' veto. On January 1, 1879, specie payments were resumed, in accordance with the provisions of the Specie Resumption Act passed by Congress in January, 1875. A general improvement in business affairs became apparent, and for the next few years the general industrial and business prostration which had weighed down upon the Nation for almost six years had in a large measure disappeared, and the American people enjoyed a short season of prosperity.

In September, 1879, N. C. Meeker, the Indian agent at White River, on the western frontier of Colorado, appealed to the National government for protection against the Ute Indians, under Chief Ouray, who resisted his agricultural operations. Major Thornburgh, with three companies of United States cavalry, while marching to the station, fell into an ambush near Milk River, in Colorado, and the commander and eleven soldiers were killed and twenty wounded by a band of Utes, September 29, 1879. The Indians burned a wagon train, and killed about three-fourths of the horses belonging to the troops. The troops fell back and intrenched. There was great excitement in Colorado over this disaster. Captain Payne, with colored troops, reinforced the defeated troops and engaged the Utes at the scene of Thornburgh's disaster, October 1, 1879. Agent Meeker and all

the white men at the White River agency were massacred by the Utes, and the women and children were carried into captivity. After a forced march, Colonel Merritt rescued the whole command, who had been besieged for six days at Milk River, and the Utes were repulsed October 5, 1879. The Indians surrendered Mrs. Meeker and her daughter and the other women to General Adams. After months of negotiation, the Utes engaged in the massacre of Agent Meeker and others at the White River agency were surrendered; and by a treaty of peace between the United States government and Chief Ouray the Utes sold their lands, September, 1880.

During the years 1879 and 1880 the Apache Indians, led by their chief, Victorio, committed numerous depredations and massacres in New Mexico Territory and in the Mexican State of Chihuahua. The military forces of the United States and Mexico made great efforts to capture Victorio and his band, but the wily chief always eluded pursuit after his encounters with United States and Mexican troops. Victorio was finally killed and his entire band killed or captured on Mexican territory by a body of Mexican troops, about the middle of October, 1880.

For two years and a half, 1877-1879, ex-President Grant made a tour around the world, being everywhere received with most distinguished honors. He first went to Great Britain, where he was magnificently entertained, being granted the freedom of the city of London in May, 1877. He next visited France, Germany, Italy, Russia and other countries of Europe, after which he traveled through Egypt, Turkey, Persia, India, China and Japan, and returned by way of San Francisco. A most magnificent reception was given him in Philadelphia, December 15, 1879.

The Republican National Convention which assembled at Chicago, June 2, 1880, was one of the most memorable party conventions in the history of American politics. A faction of the Republican party, called *Stalwarts*, headed by United States Senators

Roscoe Conkling of New York, James Donald Cameron of Pennsylvania and John A. Logan of Illinois, attempted to force the nomination of General Grant for a third term; but, after a session of a week and thirty-six ballottings, they were defeated in their efforts by the supporters of Senator James G. Blaine, of Maine, the chief rival candidate, and Senator James Abram Garfield, of Ohio, was nominated for President, with Chester Allan Arthur, of New York, for Vice-President, June 7, 1880. The Democratic National Convention at Cincinnati, June 24, 1880, nominated General Winfield Scott Hancock, of Pennsylvania, for President, and William H. English, of Indiana, for Vice-President. The Greenback Labor National Convention, in Chicago, June 10, 1880, nominated General James B. Weaver, of Iowa, the Greenback leader in Congress, for President, and Benjamin J. Chambers, of Texas, for Vice-President. The National Prohibition Convention, in Cleveland, Ohio, June 17, 1880, nominated Neal Dow, of Maine, the author of the celebrated Maine anti-liquor law, for President, and Rev. H. A. Thompson, of Ohio, for Vice-President. Garfield and Arthur were elected November 2, 1880. At the same time the Republicans secured a majority in the House of Representatives for the first time in six years, while enough State Legislatures were carried by the same party to restore its control of the United States Senate.

President Garfield was inaugurated March 4, 1881. His Cabinet was headed by the popular idol of the Republican party, James G. Blaine, of Maine, as Secretary of State, who had been Speaker of the House of Representatives for a number of years, and afterward United States Senator. Senator William Windom, of Minnesota, was made Secretary of the Treasury, and Robert Todd Lincoln, of Illinois, son of Abraham Lincoln, was made Secretary of War.

At the beginning of Garfield's Administration there was an unseemly contest for spoils and a few petty offices, as well as the control of the United States Senate, between

the Republican and Democratic Senators; but there was a greater and far more serious contest for spoils within the Republican party itself—a fight which rent the party into two hostile factions and had the most disastrous effects upon the party for several years.

This factional controversy originated in a contest about appointments to office. The

States Senator from New York, resigned, and appealed to the Legislature of their State for vindication by reelection, May 16, 1881; but the New York Legislature refused to reelect them and chose two other Senators in their stead, July 23, 1881, after a bitter contest of two months, while in the meantime the Nation had been startled by a mortal attack on the President.



J. A. Garfield

Stalwarts, headed by Senator Conkling, claimed the right to dictate appointments in their respective States; but the President, backed by Secretary Blaine, the head of the other faction, claimed the right to make appointments as he saw fit. When the President appointed William H. Robertson Collector of the Port of New York against the protest of Senator Conkling, that Senator and Thomas C. Platt, the other United

On July 2, 1881, President Garfield was shot in the Baltimore and Potomac Railroad Depot in Washington, by Charles Jules Guiteau, a disappointed office-seeker from Illinois; and, after suffering eleven weeks, with the most heroic fortitude, he finally died September 19, 1881, at Long Branch, the famous sea-side resort on the New Jersey coast, whither he had been taken from Washington two weeks before. His death



CHESTER A. ARTHUR.



caused the most intense grief among the American people, and in England he was mourned as if he had been an English prince, and Queen Victoria and her court went in mourning for one week, while the whole civilized world expressed its sorrow. The funeral obsequies at Washington, September 23, and at Cleveland, Ohio, where his remains were interred, September 26,

all of President Garfield's Cabinet, except Robert T. Lincoln, Secretary of War, were superseded by a Cabinet composed of the new President's supporters. The Senate retained its Republican majority, but the elections of 1882 gave the Democrats an overwhelming majority in the House of Representatives, and that party carried most of the States of the Union, electing



THE BROOKLYN BRIDGE.

were most imposing and impressive, and the funeral day was duly observed throughout the United States.

Vice-President Chester Allan Arthur was inaugurated President, September 20, 1881. The centennial anniversary of the surrender of Cornwallis was celebrated with imposing ceremonies at Yorktown, Virginia, October 19, 1881, war vessels of France and England participating, and the Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, being the orator of the occasion. Guiteau, the assassin of President Garfield, was tried and convicted, and was hanged June 30, 1882.

President Arthur's Administration was quiet and uneventful. In the fall of 1881

General Benjamin F. Butler Governor of Massachusetts, and Grover Cleveland Governor of New York by almost two hundred thousand majority.

Among the great works of the time is the great East River Bridge connecting the cities of New York and Brooklyn—the largest wire suspension bridge in the world, being over a mile in length, and the span from pier to pier being more than a third of a mile.

On June 6, 1884, the Republican National Convention, in Chicago, nominated James Gillespie Blaine, of Maine, for President, and General John A. Logan, of Illinois, for Vice-President. The Democratic National

Convention, in Chicago, July 11, 1884, nominated Governor Grover Cleveland, of New York, for President, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, for Vice-President. The National Prohibition Convention, in Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, July 24, 1884, nominated ex-Governor John P. St. John, of Kansas, for President, and William Daniel, of Maryland, for Vice-President. The Greenback-Labor National Convention, in Indianapolis, Indiana, May 30, 1884, nominated General Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts, for President, and A. M. West, of Mississippi, for Vice-President. The election resulted in the choice of the Democratic nominees, and returned a Democratic majority in the House of Representatives.

A World's Fair at New Orleans was opened December 16, 1884, and lasted several months. President Arthur, in the



GEN. BENJAMIN F. BUTLER.

East Room of the White House, in the National capital, was addressed from New Orleans, through the telegraph, by Colonel Richardson, the President of the Exposition, and replied through the same medium, declaring the Exhibition to be open, and touching a button of the electrical instrument he set in motion the great Corliss engine of six hundred horse-power at New

Orleans, a thousand miles distant from Washington, thus starting the vast series of machinery in the Exposition.

Washington's birthday in 1885 was signalized by the celebration of the completion of the great monument to the Father of his Country at the National capital, the cornerstone of which had been laid in 1848. This gigantic structure is five hundred and fifty-five feet high, seventy-five feet higher than the great Pyramid of Cheops in Egypt, and cost about one-and-a-half million dollars. The dedication ceremonies on Saturday, February 21, 1885, were of the most imposing character, the orator of the occasion being the Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, who had also been the orator at the laying of the corner-stone of the monument in 1848.

Cleveland and Hendricks were inaugurated President and Vice-President, March 4, 1885, and for the first time in twenty-four years a Democratic National Administration was in power. After the Senate's confirmation of the Cabinet, headed by Senator Thomas F. Bayard, of Delaware, as Secretary of State, the new Administration entered upon its duties.

In a few days a naval expedition was sent to protect the lives and property of United States citizens on the Isthmus of Panama, against the threatened attacks of the revolutionists who had taken up arms against the Colombian government, and this small United States naval expedition utterly defeated the Panama revolutionists and forced them to respect the lives and property of United States citizens.

In the summer of 1885 President Cleveland interfered to protect the Indians against the encroachments of the cattlemen who grazed their herds on the lands of the Indian Territory, and when the cattlemen asked for an extension of time the President refused to grant it, and ordered General Sheridan to use the army to remove them.

Ex-President Grant died at Mount McGregor, New York, after a long and painful illness, July 23, 1885. His remains were honored with the most imposing fun-



GROVER CLEVELAND.



eral pageant in New York City, August 8, 1885, and that day was marked by appropriate funeral services throughout the country. Among his pall-bearers were the Confederate Generals Joseph E. Johnston and Simon Bolivar Buckner, both of whom he had fought more than twenty years before. General Joseph E. Johnston was also a pall-bearer at General Sherman's funeral six years later, just three weeks before his own death. Vice-President Hendricks died suddenly November 25, 1885. Ex-President Arthur died November 18, 1886, and Senator John A. Logan died December 26, 1886.

The United States authorities in Utah made determined efforts in the early part of 1886 to suppress polygamy in that Territory, and many of the polygamous Mormons were arrested, tried, convicted and imprisoned. These trials and convictions exasperated the Mormons, and on several occasions violent outbreaks were prevented only by the presence of United troops.

During the summer of 1886 the United States had disputes with both its northern and southern neighbors. The trouble with Mexico was caused by the arrest and detention of an American journalist named Cutting at El Paso, Mexico, by the Mexican authorities, and the Texans loudly called for war, but the affair was soon settled by the release of Cutting by the Mexican authorities.

The trouble with Canada was caused by the action of the Dominion authorities in seizing American fishing vessels on charges of violating the Canadian revenue laws and coming within the three-mile limit. The Maine fishermen were intensely exasperated, but the matter subsided, and the United States and British governments proceeded to settle the affair by negotiation. The treaty negotiated for that purpose was rejected by the United States Senate in August, 1888.

On the night of August 31, 1886, a dreadful earthquake shock visited the eastern portion of the United States, and was most severely felt at Charleston, South Carolina, inflicting great damage upon that city and destroying the lives of about sixty of its in-

habitants. Liberal contributions were sent from all parts of the country to the relief of the stricken people of Charleston and to aid in repairing the damage inflicted upon the city. Earthquake shocks were thereafter frequently experienced at Charleston for many months.

The year 1886 witnessed the completion of the great Bartholdi Statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World," on Bedloe's Island, at the entrance to New York harbor. This great statue is the work of the French sculptor, Frederic Auguste Bartholdi, and was presented by the French Republic to her great sister Republic in the New World. The statue was officially presented to the United States in Paris, July 4, 1884, by Count Ferdinand de Lesseps on the part of the French Republic, and was formally accepted by the American minister, Levi P. Morton, on the part of the United States. After several years' work, and at an expense of three hundred thousand dollars, one-third of which was raised by the enterprising and public-spirited exertions of the *New York World*, a large pedestal was erected for the statue. The American committee of the statue was headed by William M. Evarts as chairman. M. Laboulaye was chairman of the French committee, which had among its members such illustrious names as Henri Martin, M. Waddington, M. de Tocqueville, Paul de Remusat, M. Simon, M. Bartholdi, the sculptor, and Oscar de Lafayette, the grandson of the renowned marquis, who aided Washington and his compatriots in the establishment of American independence. The inauguration ceremonies of the statue were performed on October 26, 1886, in the presence of President Cleveland and his Cabinet, Senators and Representatives in Congress, and a French delegation; and M. Bartholdi saw the completion of his work. The ceremonies were of an imposing character, and General Schofield acted as Grand Marshal. This immense statue—"the Eighth Wonder of the World"—is made of repousse copper one-eighth of an inch thick, kept in position by iron plates and braces riveting it to a

framework consisting of four angle iron corner posts united by horizontal and diagonal pieces. The statue itself is one hundred and fifty-one feet high, the pedestal eighty-nine feet high, and the top of the torch three hundred and seven feet above the mean low-water mark. The head will accommodate forty persons, and the torch twelve persons. The torch is reached by a spiral staircase, and contains five



STATUE OF "LIBERTY ENLIGHTENING THE WORLD."

dred and fifty-one feet high, the pedestal eighty-nine feet high, and the top of the torch three hundred and seven feet above the mean low-water mark. The head will

electric lamps of thirty thousand candle power.

President Cleveland was married at the White House to Miss Frances Folsom, in



JAMES G. BLAINE.

June, 1886. The elections of 1886 again returned a Democratic majority in the House of Representatives. The centennial anniversary of the framing of the Constitution of the United States was celebrated by a three days' pageant in Philadelphia, September 15, 16 and 17, 1887. A million people viewed the great industrial parade on the first day, and the military parade on the second day. The third day was devoted to addresses and orations on Independence Square by President Cleveland and others.

During a strike and labor troubles at Chicago, early in May, 1886, the attempt of the police to disperse an Anarchist meeting was followed by the throwing of a bomb among the police, many of whom were killed and wounded. The Anarchist leaders were arrested, imprisoned, and tried for murder, and seven of them were sentenced to be hanged. All appeals of the condemned were unsuccessful, as all the Illinois Courts decided against them, and the United States Supreme Court decided that it had no jurisdiction. One of the condemned committed suicide in prison by means of a bomb. The sentences of two were commuted to imprisonment for life by Governor Oglesby, and the other four were hanged, November 11, 1887.

In 1888 the fierce Apache Indians of Arizona and New Mexico, who had been so often at war with the United States, were subdued by United States troops, and their able chief, Geronimo, was taken prisoner and held in captivity.

In his annual message to Congress in December, 1887, President Cleveland recommended a reduction of tariff duties, and the tariff question became the issue in the Presidential campaign of 1888. The Democratic National Convention at St. Louis, June 7, 1888, after a session of three days, nominated President Cleveland for reelection, with Allen G. Thurman, of Ohio, for Vice-President. The Republican National Convention, in Chicago, June 25, 1888, after a session of six days, nominated General Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, grandson of President William Henry Harrison, for

President, with Levi P. Morton, of New York, for Vice-President. The Prohibitionists, in their National Convention in Indianapolis, May 31, 1888, nominated General Clinton B. Fisk, of New Jersey, for President, and John A. Brooks, of Missouri, for Vice-President. The election resulted in favor of the Republican candidates, with a small Republican majority in the new House of Representatives. Chief Justice Waite, having died early in 1888, Melville W. Fuller, of Chicago, was appointed his successor during the summer of the same year.

The British minister to the United States, Cornwallis West, Lord Sackville, having violated diplomatic courtesy by allowing himself to be inveigled by a political trick into answering a question as to whom American citizens of English birth ought to support in the Presidential campaign, was dismissed by President Cleveland, and the British mission at Washington was vacant until the next Administration.

In December, 1888, the authorities of the Republic of Hayti seized an American steamer on the ground that she was aiding the revolutionists of that republic. The United States Government sent Admiral Luce with two vessels to demand the surrender of the captured vessel, and the Haytian authorities complied with the demand.

For several years the Germans had interfered in the civil war in the Samoan (formerly Navigator's) Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean, which was under the joint protection of Germany, Great Britain and the United States. On January 5, 1889, German war ships burned American houses and flags at Apia, the chief Samoan town, tore down the United States flag, seized some American citizens in Apia harbor and took them as prisoners on board the German men-of-war. A boat's crew from a German vessel shot at the captain and lieutenant of an English man-of-war. Americans were stabbed by German sailors. German war ships bombarded villages, imperiling the lives of American citizens. The German

insult to the American flag aroused great indignation in the United States. Great Britain and the United States each sent several war vessels to Samoan waters, and Commander Seavy, of the steamer *Adams*, boldly told the German consul that he would protect American citizens and their property at all hazards, and was answered that they would not be molested. The British and American consuls declined to recognize the right of the Germans to establish martial law in Samoa. On January 30, 1889, President Cleveland sent a message to Congress concerning affairs in Samoa. Prince Bismarck retreated from his former position and proposed a conference between the United States, Great Britain and Germany on Samoan affairs. This proposal was agreed to by the United States and Great Britain, and all trouble passed away.

On February 22, 1889, President Cleveland signed a bill passed by both Houses of Congress for the admission of North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana and Washington into the Union as States.

Harrison and Morton were inaugurated March 4, 1889, and the new President selected a Cabinet with James G. Blaine, of Maine, as Secretary of State, and William Windom, of Minnesota, as Secretary of the Treasury, both of whom had held the same positions in President Garfield's Cabinet, and neither of whom lived to the end of this Administration. The Samoan controversy was soon settled, in a conference with England and Germany at Berlin, on terms honorable to the United States.

The centennial of Washington's inauguration—April 30, 1889—was celebrated in New York City, President Harrison and his Cabinet being present. On the previous day there had been a grand naval review in the harbor. The centennial day was celebrated by literary exercises at the Sub-Treasury, and by a military parade of fifty thousand soldiers, viewed by a million spectators. The next day, May 1, there was a great industrial parade.

The most appalling catastrophe in the realm of nature that ever afflicted the United

States was the destruction of Johnstown, Pennsylvania, by a flood caused by the bursting of the dam of a large artificial lake thirteen miles above the town, on the afternoon of Friday, May 31, 1889, in consequence of the accumulated waters which poured in the lake after several days of heavy rains. By this awful catastrophe about three thousand five hundred human beings were swept into eternity. The American people and the civilized world responded nobly to the cry for help from the desolated Conemaugh Valley, and millions of dollars were raised for the relief of the distressed survivors, while contributions of food and clothing were also sent. Large sums were likewise raised in England, France, Germany and other European countries, and from far-off Australia. After many weeks of labor, the debris was cleared away under the auspices of the State authorities of Pennsylvania.

In the fall of 1889 there was a Pan-American Congress at Washington, composed of delegates from all the republics of North and South America, the design of which was to promote friendly political and commercial relations among all these republics. After the meeting in Washington the delegates were taken in excursions over the United States to make them acquainted with the country and its resources.

Congress during its session in 1890 passed what is known as the McKinley Tariff Act, from its author, William McKinley, of Ohio, which was signed by the President and became a law in October, 1890. During the same session of Congress the Sherman Silver Act, framed by Senator John Sherman, of Ohio, providing for the coinage of four and a half million silver dollars per month, was also passed and signed by the President. Congress also at this session passed bills for the admission of Idaho and Wyoming into the Union as States.

The elections in the fall of 1890 resulted in overwhelming victories for the Democrats, who carried all but ten States, and elected a majority of over one hundred and fifty in the next National House of Representatives.

In November, 1890, the Sioux Indians, excited by the preaching of the Indian Messiah, became warlike. The National government proceeded to stop the Indian war dances; and Sitting Bull, the famous Sioux chief, was shot dead when he refused to surrender, December 15, 1890. A bloody war followed; and after a number of sanguinary battles in the Bad Lands, in the southwestern part of South Dakota, and the northwestern part of Nebraska, during December, 1890, and January, 1891, the Indians were subdued by the United States troops under General Nelson A. Miles, and quiet was restored. In the battle of Wounded Knee Creek the loss was heavy on both sides, and many Indian squaws and children were among the slain. Like all other Indian wars, this war was the fault of the white man.

The acquittal, by a jury in New Orleans, March 14, 1891, of eleven Italians belonging to a murderous society called the *Mafia*, which had assassinated David C. Hennessy, Chief of Police of that city, on October 17, 1890, was followed by the lynching of the acquitted Italians by an infuriated mob. This proceeding disturbed the peaceful relations of the United States and Italy for a time, and the Italian government recalled its minister at Washington, Baron Fava, but the controversy was soon settled, and some months later the United States government paid to Italy an indemnity of twenty-five thousand dollars for the families of the lynched Italian subjects.

The *Itata*, a Chilean rebel steamer, was pursued and captured by United States war vessels for violating the United States neutrality laws by carrying arms from San Diego, California, to the Chilean revolutionists in their civil war with President Balmaceda. After the overthrow and suicide of Balmaceda, and the establishment of a new government in Chili by the triumphant revolutionists, a party of American sailors were killed and wounded by a furious mob in Valparaiso, October 16, 1891. This proceeding menaced the peaceful relations of the United States and Chili for a time, and the

new Chilean government sent an angry reply to the demands of the United States for reparation. The United States government prepared for war and finally sent an *ultimatum* to Chili, demanding an apology and indemnity, January 21, 1892. This demand was complied with, and Chili paid an indemnity of seventy-five thousand dollars for the families of the killed and wounded American sailors.

For several years the peaceful relations of the United States and Great Britain had been disturbed by the seizure of Canadian sealing vessels by the United States revenue cutter *Rush* for catching seals within the maritime jurisdiction of the United States in Alaskan waters. The United States claimed the right to protect the seals even beyond the maritime three-mile limit—a claim which Great Britain contested. In 1892 the controversy was temporarily adjusted by a *modus vivendi*, which was afterwards renewed. Lord Salisbury induced a Canadian whose vessels had been seized to appeal to the United States Supreme Court, which decided against the United States government when that government denied the jurisdiction of the Court. Both governments finally decided to settle the dispute by arbitration.

A strike of the employes in the iron works of the Carnegie Company at Homestead, near Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, was followed by a battle between the strikers and three hundred Pinkerton detectives, with a number killed and wounded on both sides, July 6, 1892; and the Pennsylvania militia were called out to preserve the peace. A strike of the miners at Cœur d'Alene, in Idaho, was followed by the sending thither of United States troops to prevent violence. A railroad strike at Buffalo, was soon followed by the calling out of the New York militia to prevent violence there. The violence of the strikers in coal mines on Coal Creek, East Tennessee, was suppressed by the Tennessee militia.

On June 10, 1892, the Republican National Convention, in Minneapolis, nominated President Harrison for reëlection, with Whitelaw Reid, editor of the *New York*

Tribune, for Vice-President. On June 24, 1892, the Democratic National Convention, in Chicago, nominated ex-President Grover Cleveland, with Adlai E. Stevenson, of Illinois, for Vice-President. The People's party, in a National Convention in Omaha, July 4, 1892, adopted a platform denouncing monopolies and corporations, and nominated General James B. Weaver, of Iowa, for President, and General James G. Field, of Virginia, for Vice-President. The Prohibition party, in a National Convention in Cincinnati, June 30, 1888, nominated General John Bidwell, of California, for President, and J. B. Cranfill, of Texas, for Vice-President. The election resulted in the choice of the Democratic candidates, who had a majority of one hundred and ten in the Electoral College, while a Democratic House of Representatives was elected with a majority of almost ninety. The People's party carried Kansas, Colorado, Nevada and Idaho, and had twenty-two Electors. Several months after his reelection, ex-President and President-elect Cleveland attended the funeral of ex-President Hayes, at the latter's home at Fremont, Ohio. James G. Blaine, who had retired from President Harrison's Cabinet early in June, 1892, died January 27, 1893.

By a revolution in the Hawaiian, or Sandwich Islands, January 19, 1893, the native queen of those islands was overthrown, and a provisional government established with Sanford B. Dole at its head, by the leaders of the descendants of American missionaries. United States Minister John L. Stevens proclaimed an American protectorate over the Islands, and the new provisional government entered into a treaty with the United States government for the annexation of Hawaii to the United States. President Harrison sent the treaty to the United States Senate for ratification, but that body delayed action thereon.

Cleveland and Stevenson were inaugurated March 4, 1893. Cleveland was the first President with a term intervening between his first and second Administrations. After the confirmation of his Cabinet, headed

by Walter Q. Gresham, of Indiana, a former Republican, as Secretary of State, the new Administration entered upon its duties. Ambassadors, instead of Ministers, were now for the first time sent by the United States to Great Britain, France and Germany; and Thomas F. Bayard, formerly United States Senator from Delaware, and Secretary of State during Cleveland's first Administration, was appointed United States Ambassador at London.

Late in February, 1890, Congress decided upon Chicago as the place, and 1893 as the year, for holding a *World's Columbian Exposition*, in honor of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America. Great preparations were made for this great international exhibition, or World's Fair, and invitations were sent to all the nations of the earth to participate. Immense exhibition buildings were erected on Jackson Park for the Exposition. The largest building on the grounds was the Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building. Other noted buildings were the Administration Building and the Woman's Building. The various State buildings were creditable structures. Congress finally made an appropriation of two and a half million dollars. The World's Columbian Exposition was opened with imposing ceremonies, May 1, 1893, three hundred thousand people being present. President Cleveland declared the Exhibition open. The day ended in the scintillating glare of myriads of electric lights which flashed from the mighty buildings along the lagoons. An interesting feature of the Exposition was the Midway Plaisance, covering eighty acres, and illustrating the manners and customs of various civilized and uncivilized nations of the earth. During the fall immense crowds attended the Exposition daily. The highest number was on Chicago Day, when eight hundred thousand persons visited the grounds. In all over twenty-one million visitors attended the Exposition, which was about twelve million short of the Paris Exposition of 1889. The total cost of the Exposition was over thirty million dollars. The total income from re-



BENJAMIN HARRISON.

ceipts and concessions was over thirty-two million dollars. So there was a surplus of about two million dollars. The Exposition was unsurpassed among World's Fairs in the size of the buildings and in the extent of its exhibits. The various nations of the earth, great and small, displayed their manufactures and arts and their products of the soil and the mine. In connection with the Exposition a number of Congresses were held, such as the Literary Congress, the Educational Congress, the Congress of Republics, etc. The most interesting of these gatherings was the *World's Parliament of Religions*, which met for three weeks in September, at which Christians, Jews, Mohammedans, Buddhists, Brahmans, Confucians, etc., met for the first time in friendly concourse. The Exposition closed October 30, 1893, after being open six months.

In the spring of 1893 a Court of Arbitration for the settlement of the Bering Sea seals dispute between the United States and Great Britain met in Paris. The Arbitrators were Associate Justice John M. Harlan, of the United States Supreme Court, and United States Senator John T. Morgan, of Alabama, on the part of the United States; Lord Hannen, and Sir John Thompson, of Canada, on the part of Great Britain; the Baron de Courcel, a French Senator, on the part of France; the Marquis Emilio Visconti Venosta, on the part of Italy; and M. Gregors Gram, on the part of Sweden and Norway. The Baron de Courcel, the French Arbitrator, was President of the Court. The case was ably argued by Messrs. Phelps, Coudert and Carter, the counsel for the United States, and by Sir Charles Russell, Sir Richard Webster and Mr. Robinson, the counsel for Great Britain. The Court rendered its decision August 15, 1893. On every broad principle of international law the Arbitrators decided wholly in favor of Great Britain. The absurd claims of the United States to exclusive jurisdiction in Bering Sea were rejected, even Justice Harlan voting against his own country on this point, and Senator Morgan being the only Arbitrator who voted for the American claim on this point.

The other equally absurd claim of United States to an exclusive right of property in the seals frequenting the Pribyloff Islands was also rejected by the Court, the two American Arbitrators being the only ones voting in favor of the American claim. Thus on these two points the French, Italian and Swedish Arbitrators justly agreed with the two British Arbitrators in rejecting the preposterous claims of the United States. On these two points the victory of Great Britain and the defeat of the United States was complete, and justly so, as this decision maintained the freedom of the seas, in accordance with long established principles of international law. The Court, however, prescribed regulations for the protection of the fur seals from total extinction under the joint authority of the United States and Great Britain.

The year 1893 was characterized by a financial panic as disastrous as that of 1873. During the summer quite a number of banks failed all over the country, and business was prostrated, the wheels of industry stopped and labor thrown out of employment. The condition of the National treasury and the public finances engaged the attention of the Administration, and President Cleveland summoned Congress to meet in extra session on August 7, 1893. When it met the President's message recited the condition of affairs and recommended the repeal of the silver purchasing clause of the Sherman Silver Act of 1890. The House of Representatives promptly complied with the President's request by passing an act to that effect, but the Senate delayed action for several months. As soon as the act passed the latter body it received the President's signature and became a law.

Upon his inauguration, President Cleveland withdrew the treaty for the annexation of Hawaii, which his predecessor had sent to the Senate, and appointed ex-Congressman Blount, of Georgia, to go to Hawaii as commissioner to investigate matters there. Mr. Blount made a report unfavorable to the provisional government of Hawaii, but the action of the Administration in Hawaiian

affairs was denounced by the press and was very unpopular. In the meantime Hawaii became a republic in name, but an oligarchy in fact, as ninety per cent. of the population was disfranchised by a property qualification for the suffrage.

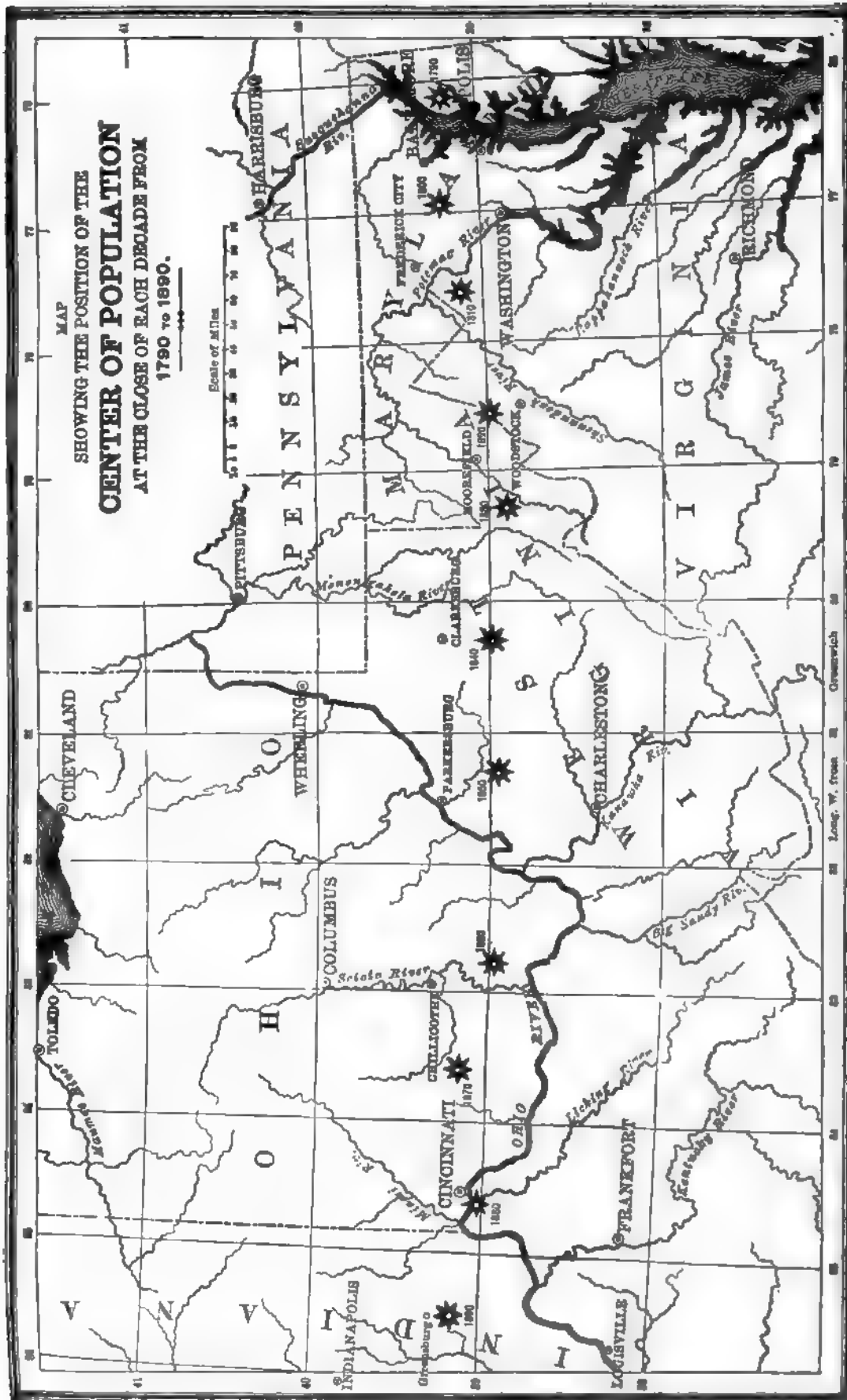
In January, 1894, Admiral Benham, in command of several United States war vessels at Rio Janeiro, Brazil, warned Admiral da Gama, in command of the Brazilian rebel fleet bombarding the city, against reckless firing endangering the lives and property of American citizens. Admiral da Gama sent a defiant answer and continued his reckless firing, whereupon Admiral Benham fired a broadside into the rebel admiral's fleet, practically dispersing his fleet. Admiral Benham was sustained by his government and the American people.

The Legislature of South Carolina had passed a *Dispensary Act*, providing for the dispensing of liquors to the people of that State by State dispensaries, which could only be established in any locality by petition of the inhabitants, and which prohibited all private traffic in liquors. As the great majority of the people of the State, who were opposed to the liquor traffic, did not petition for the establishment of dispensaries in their midst, most of the State was under practical prohibition of the liquor traffic, and drunkenness decreased seventy-five per cent. throughout the State, and the law was very popular. The law had been a favorite measure of Governor Tillman, and was intensely obnoxious to the liquor interest and its sympathizers. In April, 1894, a lawless outbreak at Darlington quickly followed the action of constables in seizing liquor held by private individuals in violation of the law; and two constables and two lawless citizens were killed. Thereupon Governor Tillman, a man of great firmness and moral courage, vindicated the majesty of the law and his oath of office by sending State militia under Generals Richbourg and Farley to suppress anarchy and rebellion, instructing the militia to shoot to kill. Some of the militia cowardly refused to obey orders, but others responded with alacrity

and proceeded to the scene of trouble with cheers "for Farmer Ben. Tillman," and anarchy in South Carolina was quickly stamped out and law and order vindicated, amid the plaudits of all right-thinking people. Strange to say, the press of the country, usually on the side of law and order, generally sympathized with the South Carolina anarchists, who defied a law of the State.

On February 1, 1894, the National House of Representatives passed the Wilson Tariff Act, so named from its author, William L. Wilson, of West Virginia; but the Senate delayed action on the measure for six months, and under the lead of Senator Arthur P. Gorman, of Maryland, passed a tariff bill of its own, making a less reduction in the tariff than did the Wilson bill. In August, after a bitter controversy between the two Houses of Congress, the House of Representatives finally surrendered by accepting the Senate bill, which became a law without the President's signature, after being in his possession beyond the Constitutional limit of ten days. During this session of Congress, Utah, having adopted an anti-polygamy State Constitution, was admitted into the Union as a State.

In July, 1894, occurred the most gigantic strike of railroad employees ever known in the United States. The American Railway Union ordered a strike and boycott on all Pullman cars in aid of the strikers in the shops at the suburb of Pullman, in Chicago. There was a blockade on the railways leading from Chicago, and on the Santa Fé and Pacific systems. The United States government interfered to prevent interference with the running of the mails, and President Cleveland sent United States troops under General Nelson A. Miles, to Chicago. Injunctions were also issued by the United States Court at Chicago, and the leading officials of the American Railway Union were arrested. Trains were soon run and the strike and blockade ended. After six months, the United States Court finally sentenced the American Railway Union officials to imprisonment, January, 1895,



Center of U. S. Population.—This may be termed the center of gravity of the population of the entire country, and is "the point at which equilibrium would be reached were the country taken as a plane surface and without weight but capable of moving freely, and loaded with its inhabitants in number and position as they are found at the period under consideration, each individual being assumed to be of the same activity as every other, and consequently to exert pressure on the pivotal point directly proportioned to its distance therefrom." (U. S. Statistical Atlas.) The above map shows the progress of this Center of Population from 1790, and it will be seen that the line of movement has followed in a regular manner to the south parallel north latitude. The spot was marked by a stone monument erected by the Chicago Herald in 1891.

but they were released on bail. Their trial for conspiracy then begun, but the trial ended on account of the illness of a juror and on account of the weakness of the case against the accused. In May, 1895, the United States Supreme Court decided that the American Railway Union officials would have to serve the terms of imprisonment to which they had been sentenced by the United States District Court for disobeying injunctions.

The elections in November, 1894, like those of a year previous, resulted in overwhelming Republican victories in every Northern State, and a Republican majority of over one hundred and forty in the new House of Representatives was chosen, the hitherto strongly Democratic States of Kentucky and Missouri choosing a number of Republican Congressmen.

The expulsion of Mr. Hatch, the British consul, from Bluefields, Nicaragua, in the spring of 1895, involved that little Central American republic in a serious dispute with Great Britain, as the British government demanded an indemnity of fifteen thousand pounds sterling for the expulsion of its consul. As the Nicaraguan government at first refused to pay the indemnity demanded, the British threatened to seize the Nicaraguan port of Corinto and collect sufficient revenue from the receipts at the custom house there to pay the indemnity. Thereupon Nicaragua came to terms and agreed to pay the indemnity demanded, the payment of which was guaranteed by the United States government, which had intervened in the interest of the little republic, and the trouble ended. Great Britain was also involved in a dispute with Venezuela about the boundary between that South American republic and the colony of British Guiana, and the United States also interested itself to prevent a serious rupture. The United States government had interested itself in these affairs to prevent any violation of the principles of the Monroe Doctrine.

In March, 1895, the American steamer *Allianca* was fired upon by a Spanish vessel

in Cuban waters, as she failed to answer a signal. The United States government demanded an apology and reparation, which, after an investigation of some weeks, Spain finally granted, as it was fully proven that the *Allianca* was outside the maritime jurisdiction of Spain. In the meantime the Spanish and Hawaiian ministers to the United States were handed their passports by Secretary of State Gresham for official impropriety in criticising the Secretary of State through the newspapers and in giving official information to certain newspapers. Secretary of State Gresham died May 28, 1895.

The Cotton States Exposition, which began at Atlanta, Ga., September 18, 1895, and lasted for six months, was probably the most important event in the history of the Southern States since the Civil War. It presented an elaborate display of products from the South, as well as from other states and countries, and undoubtedly did much to foster a friendly feeling between the sections.

On August 20, 1895, a train on the London & Northwestern Railway, in England, had been run at the phenomenal speed of an average of 63.27 miles an hour for 540 miles; but on September 11, 1895, a train was run on the New York Central Railroad, in the United States, at an average speed of 64.34 miles per hour for 436 miles, thus making the fastest time on record for a long distance.

In January, 1896, the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States called for sealed proposals for the purchase of \$100,000,000 of United States four-per-cent. gold bonds, and when the bids were opened it was found that the aggregate of the bids was for \$568,259,850, thus demonstrating not only the financial strength of the nation, but the confidence of the people in the government.

On June 10, 1896, Attorney-General Richard Olney was appointed to succeed Secretary of State Walter Q. Gresham, who died May 28. The transfer of Mr. Olney necessitated the appointment of a new Attorney-General, and Judson Harmon, of Ohio, was selected to fill the vacancy.

During the years 1895 and 1896 the United States continued to be active in the construction of war vessels and coast defense fortifications, resulting, during the period named, in adding to the navy a number of war ships constructed after the most modern ideas of naval architecture.

The election of a President and Vice-President to hold office for the four years beginning March 4, 1897, was one of the most memorable in the history of American politics.

The Republican Convention at St. Louis, Mo., June 16-18, 1896, nominated William M'Kinley of Ohio for President and Garrett A. Hobart of New Jersey for Vice-President, on a platform the principal features of

the issue of notes by national banks, demanding that all money be issued by the general government. There was also a plank declaring in favor of the existing tariff.

The Prohibition Convention met in Pittsburgh, Pa., May 27-28, 1896, and nominated Joshua Levering of Maryland for President and Hale Johnson of Illinois for Vice-President, on a platform declaring for prohibition and woman's suffrage.

The National Party formed by bolters from the Prohibition Convention assembled in Pittsburgh at the close of that Convention, and nominated Charles E. Bentley of Nebraska for President and J. H. Southgate of North Carolina for Vice-President.



POLITICAL COMPLEXION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1896.

which were declarations for protective tariff, for sound money, and against the free coinage of silver except by international agreement. An incident of this convention was the dramatic bolt made by the silver members, headed by Senator Henry M. Teller, of Colorado.

The Democratic Convention was held in Chicago, Ill., July 7-11, 1896, and nominated William Jennings Bryan of Nebraska for President and Arthur Sewall of Maine for Vice-President. The platform demanded free and unlimited coinage of both silver and gold at the ratio of sixteen to one, silver to be a legal tender equally with gold; it also declared against

The Populist Convention at St. Louis, July 22-25, 1896, nominated William J. Bryan of Nebraska for President and Thomas Watson of Georgia for Vice-President. Their platform declared against the money power, and in favor of a government of the people, demanding free coinage of silver and gold at sixteen to one, and the issuance of all money by the general government; also an increase of the circulating medium.

The National Silver Party held its convention at St. Louis July 22-24, 1896, and nominated Bryan and Sewall as its candidates, upon a platform declaring for free and unlimited coinage of gold and silver.



WILLIAM M'KINLEY.



JOHN D. LONG,
Secretary of the Navy



JOHN SHERMAN,
Secretary of State



JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture



JOSEPH MCKENNA,
Attorney General



GEORGE A. HOAR,
Vice President



RUSSELL A. ALGER,
Secretary of War



CORNELIUS N. BLISS,
Secretary of the Treasury



JAMES J. GAGE,
Postmaster-General



JAMES A. GARY,
Postmaster-General

MCKINLEY'S CABINET.

The National Democratic Convention assembled at Indianapolis, Ind., September 2, 1896, and nominated John M. Palmer of Illinois for President and Simon B. Buckner of Kentucky for Vice-President, on a platform declaring for a gold money standard and against the free coinage of silver.

The Socialist Labor Convention was held in New York City July 4-10, 1896, nominating Charles H. Matchett of New York for President and Mathew Maguire of New Jersey for Vice-President. The platform demanded the government ownership of all means of public conveyance and communication, the repeal of all "sumptuary laws," the abolition of the convict labor system, and employment by the public of all unemployed.

On November 3, 1896, William McKinley and Garrett A. Hobart were elected by a plurality of 603,514 votes. The political complexion of the country following this election is shown by the accompanying map. This campaign, and the election following, created more interest throughout the United States and the entire civilized world than any event in American history since the Civil War. It involved a political struggle between the agricultural and mining interests of the West and South against the so-called money power of the East and of the other financial centres of the country. The international phases of the election were also of great importance, for it was held that the free coinage of silver by the United States alone would seriously disturb her financial relations with the entire civilized world, and it was also contended that if silver were made a legal tender for all debts, public and private, the national credit would be seriously impaired, as outstanding obligations to foreign nations were practically payable in gold. The vote of the people against the proposed change in the money standard was unequivocal and overwhelming.

Immediately following the election there was a beginning of business revival, and a more hopeful feeling in commercial circles. The revival did not reach the proportions expected by many, however, and it soon

became apparent that the improvement on the whole would not be remarkable.

No action was taken by Congress to increase the income of Government, nor to preserve the Treasury from undue demands upon the gold reserve. The most important measure before the Senate was the Arbitration Treaty, concluded with Great Britain, the outlines of which will be found in connection with the article in this work on the Venezuelan Boundary dispute. Upon this important Treaty the Senate neglected to act, and its ratification by the Senate in extra session was urged in President McKinley's Inaugural address.

On March 4th, William McKinley took the oath of office, and was inaugurated President. His address on that occasion recommended, among other things, international bimetallism, the investigation of Trusts, and Protective Tariff measures. On March 5 his Cabinet appointments were confirmed in the Senate. It consisted of the following members: John Sherman, of Ohio, Secretary of State; Lyman J. Gage, of Illinois, Secretary of the Treasury; Russell A. Alger, of Michigan, Secretary of War; Joseph McKenna, of California, Attorney-General; James A. Gary, of Maryland, Postmaster-General; John D. Long, of Massachusetts, Secretary of the Navy; Cornelius N. Bliss, of New York, Secretary of the Interior; James Wilson, of Iowa, Secretary of Agriculture.

The President announced his purpose to call an extra session of Congress March 15th to act upon tariff measures and to accomplish other needed legislation.

The Government and the individual States of the United States had been active in various great improvements during the decade ending with the beginning of 1897. The Nicaragua Canal to be built in Nicaragua, Central America, from Greytown on the Caribbean Sea through the San Juan River and Lake Nicaragua to Brito on the Pacific coast, was intended as a water-way for the largest vessels, saving more miles for navigators than any similar work ever attempted. The first surveys for the canal

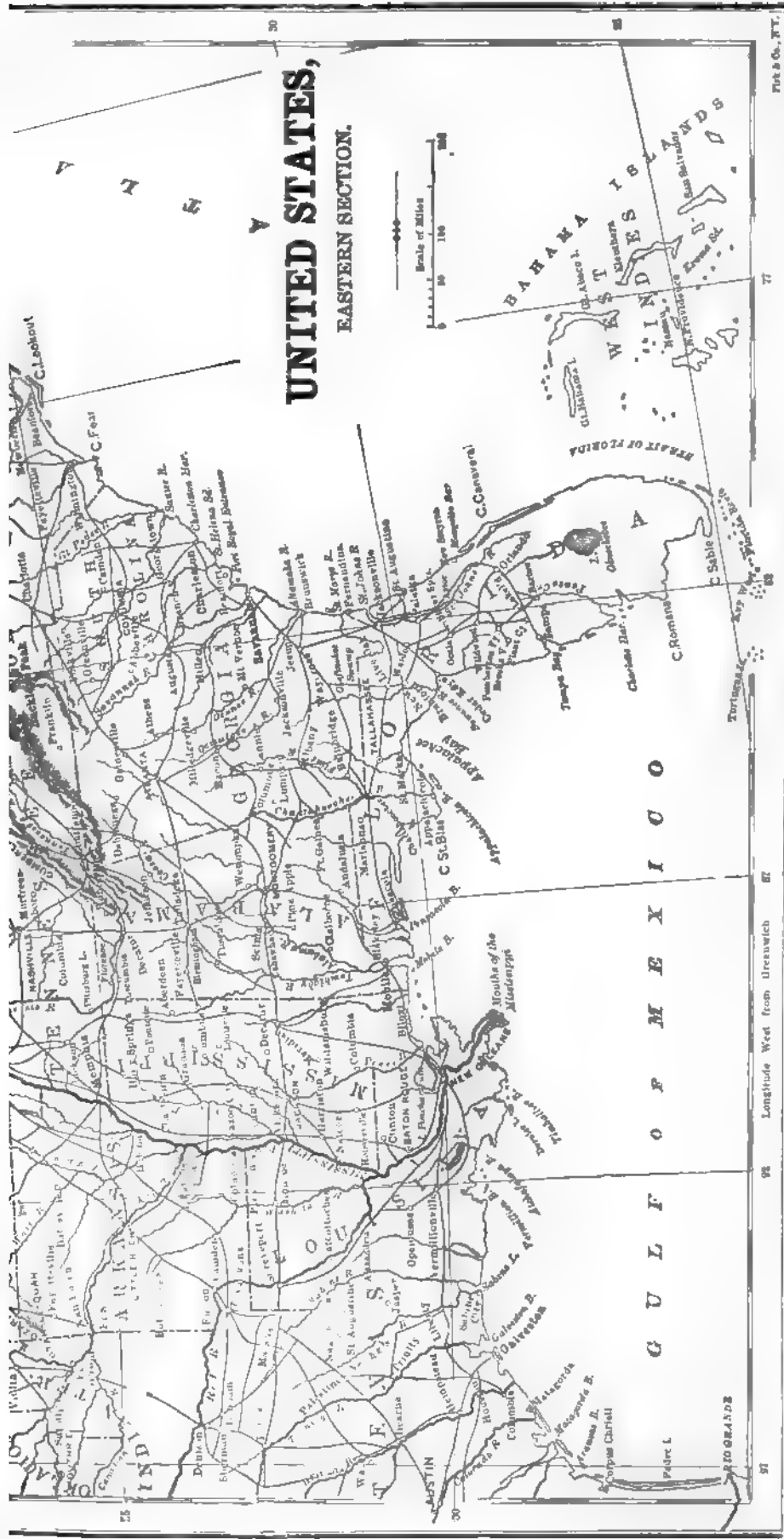
were made by United States naval officers in 1872-73. In 1884 Nicaragua and the United States signed a treaty whereby the latter was empowered to construct a ship canal at such point in the territory of the latter as might be deemed expedient, and the Congress of the United States passed a bill in 1888 incorporating the Maritime Canal Company to build the canal in question at the estimated cost of \$168,000,000; later surveys, however, brought this estimate down to \$140,000,000. But work on the canal had not progressed up to May, 1893, owing to lack of funds, though it was given an impetus at this time by the organization of the International Construction Company, in the United States, to build under contract the western portion of the work. In August, 1893, the original company was forced to go into the hands of a receiver, but later was reorganized. In January, 1894, a bill was introduced in the Senate of the United States to grant the assistance of the Government; and this bill, amended to provide that the Govern-

ment should guarantee the bonds of the company to the amount of \$70,000,000, was passed by the Senate, but failed to pass the House of Representatives. In the meantime the International Construction Company had been reorganized under the name of the Nicaragua Company, and a Government commission, which had been appointed in 1895, reported in favor of the appropriation of large sums for new surveys, whereby the cost of construction might be reduced. In 1896 the sentiment of the people of the United States had crystallized into the belief that the canal should be built; but as late as February, 1897, Congress had not disposed of a number of bills before it looking to this end.

In the State of Illinois the construction of the Hennepin ship canal, to connect Lake Michigan with the lower Mississippi River, was pushed with great energy; while in western New York the utilization of the immense water-power at Niagara Falls for the creation of electric power marked an era of great moment in material progress.

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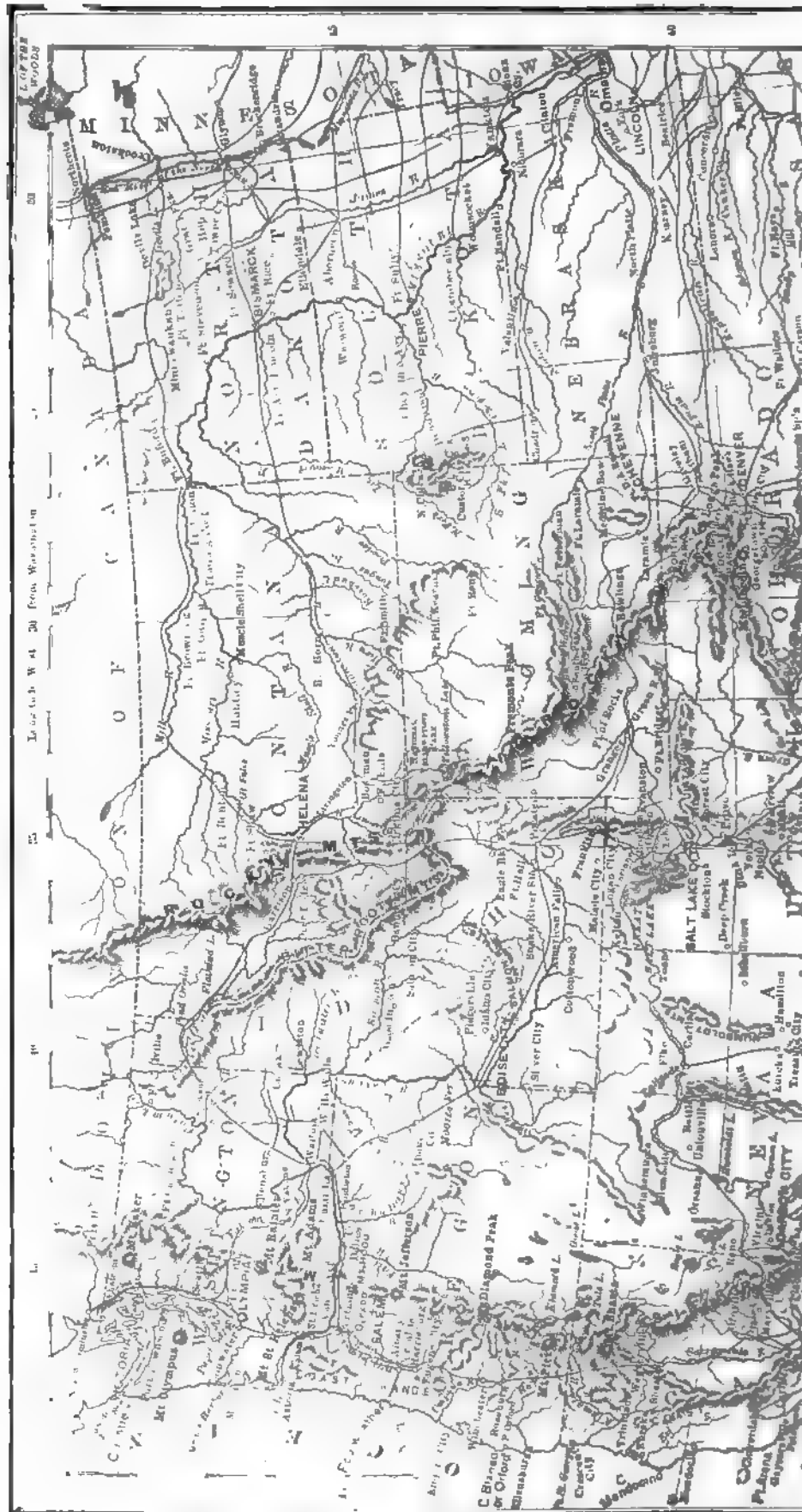




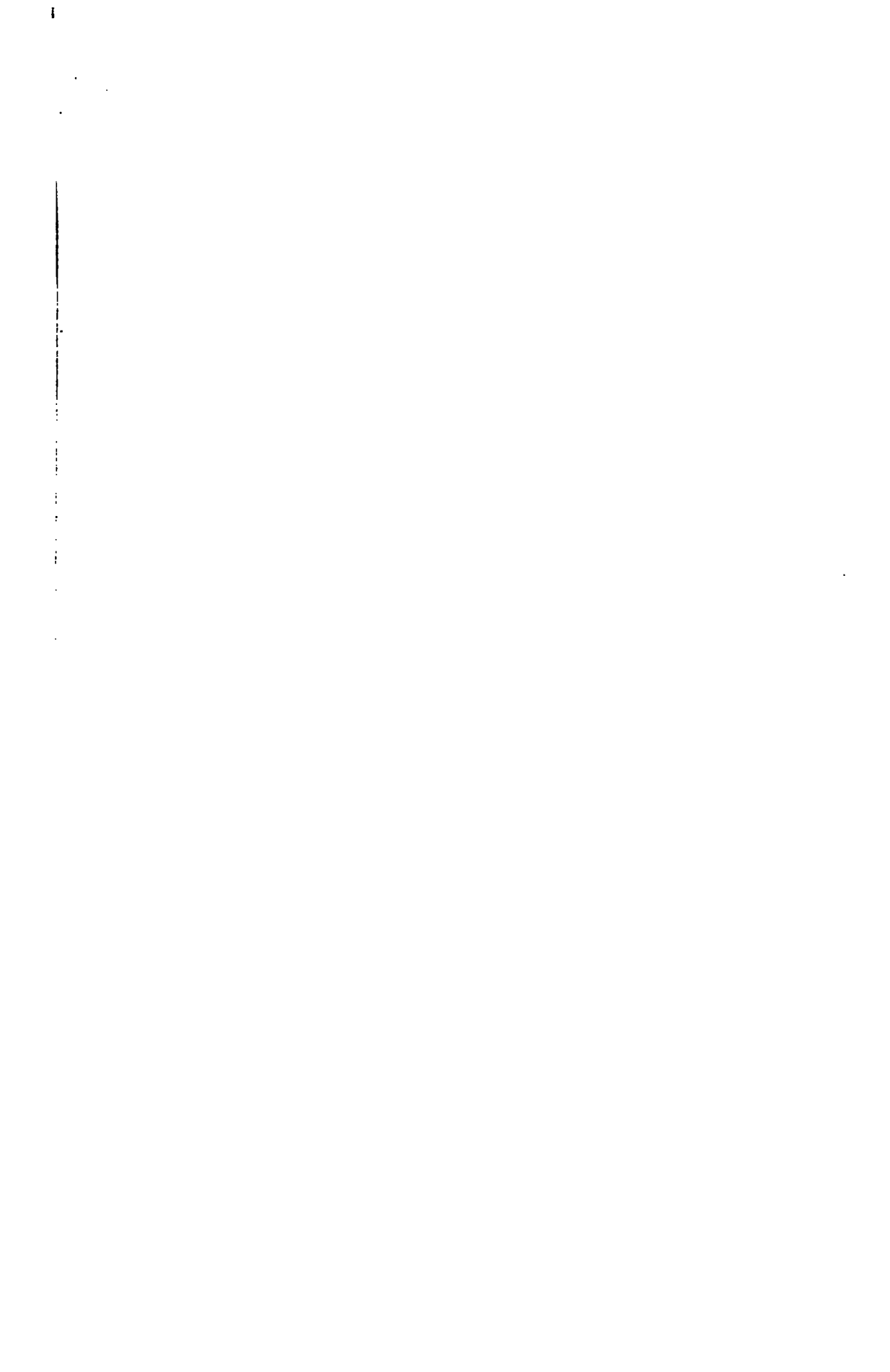
UNITED STATES, EASTERN SECTION.

Scale of Miles
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G U L F O F M E X I C O









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